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LEADERSHIP STYLE AND ORGANIZATIONAL
CLIMATE IN HIGHER EDUCATION

A Dissertation Presented

By

CORINTHIAN FIELDS, JR.

Submitted to the Graduate School of the
University of Massachusetts in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

School of Education

May 1980

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Corinthian Fields, Jr.

1980

LEADERSHIP STYLE AND ORGANIZATIONAL
CLIMATE IN HIGHER EDUCATION

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C H A P T E R I

A FORMULATION OF THE PROBLEM

Introduction

If higher educational institutions are going to meet the future challenges, they must be responsive to contemporary issues and shifts in economic policies. Many of the higher educational institutions are becoming less and less effective: the leadership styles practiced are hopelessly out of touch with contemporary realities, and, as a result, they are not responsive to current changes and trends in today's world. Many of the traditional leadership styles do not take into account the emergent and unanticipated problems. Full human resources are not being utilized, due to mistrust, fear of reprisals, and other factors. Personality structure is modified so that people become and reflect the dull, gray, conditioned "organization man or woman." Communication and innovative ideas are thwarted or distorted due to hierarchical division. Most of all, many of the leadership styles practiced do not adequately allow for personal growth and the continued development of mature personalities. People working within these institutions have specific psychological and social needs that must be met in order that they may function in a manner consistent with the need of the organization. On

the basis of these needs, the researcher attempts to answer questions related to leadership styles and organizational climate and identify those leadership styles that impact the health of the organization (organizational climate).

A comprehensive study which would delineate the magnitude of the problem could be beneficial in assisting the administration in higher education to manage these institutions more efficiently.

Over a period of years individuals have discussed the importance of leadership. One of the first observations extends back to 1300 B.C. (Lepawsky, 1949). Socrates is reported to have made the following observations on management:

I say that over whatever a man may preside, he will, if he knows what he needs, and is able to provide it, be a good president, whether he have the direction of a chorus, a family, a city, or an army. . . . Is it not also the duty . . . to appoint fitting persons to fulfill the various duties? . . . To punish the bad, and to honour the good. . . . Do not, therefore Nicomachildes, despise men skillful in managing a household; for the conduct of private affairs differs from that of public concerns, only in magnitude; in other respects they are similar; but, what is most to be observed is that neither of them are managed without men, and public matters by another; for those who conduct public business make use of men not at all differing in nature from those whom the managers of private affairs judiciously. While those who do not know will err in the management of both. (Plato and Xenophon: Socratic Discourses, Book III, chap. 4, 1910)

Thus, even in bureaucratic states of antiquity, men were equally concerned with the skills necessary to manage effectively such administrations.

Fredrick Taylor (1895) was the first to apply leadership and management principles to the work site. Taylor focused

on the task, emphasizing the duty of managers to gather information on work practices and to design job equipment and methods that reflected the best work practices. His work was widely acclaimed, and others used his methods and created new ones to increase efficiency in industry. Taylor was considered the "father of scientific management."

The first individual to look at management and leadership from a people-centered perspective was George Elton Mayo (1927). Mayo focused on people, emphasizing the duty of managers to provide conditions of work so that "spontaneous cooperation" would occur among groups. The Hawthorne studies show quite clearly that factors other than working conditions and the physiological state of the worker have a marked influence on productivity. These factors are recognized as social and psychological in nature.

Modern approaches to leadership and management emphasize production, administration, and human relations. The human relations movement added another dimension to the understanding of motivation.

Another theory that has stimulated a great deal of empirical research is Herzberg's (1966) two-factor theory of satisfaction and motivation (cf. Herzberg, Mauser, and Snyderman, 1949). Leadership is only one of several variables in the life of the group or organization. However, effective leadership is crucial to group accomplishment. In administration, better leaders develop better managers, and both

of them develop a more effective organization. As Bennis (1961) states, "Leadership is the ability to persuade others to seek defined objectives enthusiastically. It is the human factor which binds a group together and motivates it toward its goals."

Leadership is something more than a job or a position. It is the ". . . quality of the behavior of supervisors that motivates people to want to work" (Evans, 1969). "The supervisor, with superior leadership ability, may find it unnecessary to use much of the authority which is formally vested in his/her position in order to motivate his/her subordinates to work effectively and efficiently" (Lippett and White, 1966).

The contemporary administrator exercises a different type of leadership over his subordinates, or followers, insofar that he has the power to influence the degree to which employees can satisfy their needs in the work environment. However, for many reasons, including the growth of unions, court decisions, new laws, and organization policies, the leader is no longer in absolute control.

Instead of having power over people, the leader earns his power and authority by his day-to-day behavior, decisions, and actions with people. Ordway (1935) suggests that the ". . . leader will be most successful in retaining his rights to lead, who can help a group to get what it wants with the least friction, and the most sense of unity and self realization."

Rensis Likert, another management theorist, describes organizations in terms of systems of management behaviors. System 1 is an exploitative-authoritative approach. System 2 is authoritative with benevolence. System 3 views management as consulting subordinates on matters managers choose to solicit employees about. System 4 emphasizes participative management. The effects of these different management systems result in different attitudes and behaviors by the employees. The authoritative systems characteristically have less group loyalty, feel pressured, are less motivated, and do not perform well. The participative system encourages and obtains high group loyalty, greater cooperation, and maintains a higher level of performance over a period of time.

Such a review of managerial techniques only emphasizes the intimate relationship between leadership and performance. Socrates' observation that the skillful management of private affairs differs "only in magnitude" to that of public concerns illustrates the necessity of examining those skills or techniques that result in effective leadership.

The Problem

The intent of this study is to explore the relationship between leadership style and organizational climate in a college and university setting. Academic faculty and staff to be studied have been selected from fifteen colleges throughout the United States.

In order to accomplish this objective, it is necessary to survey both the academic faculty and administrative staff.

The specific questions to be explored are the following:

- (1) Why should a leader be aware of his/her impact on followers?
- (2) What are faculty and staff perceptions of their work environment?
- (3) What impact does the leader behavior have on the organizational climate?
- (4) What are academic faculty and staff expectations from the work environment?
- (5) Is there a preferred leadership style in higher education?
- (6) To what extent are subordinates involved in decisions related to their work?
- (7) Is decision making based on person-to-person or group pattern of operation? Does it encourage or discourage teamwork?
- (8) To what extent does the immediate supervisor constructively use a subordinates' ideas and opinions in solving job problems?
- (9) What kinds of attitudes are developed toward organization and its goals?
- (10) To what extent do supervisors have confidence and trust in subordinates?
- (11) To what extent do subordinates in turn have confidence and trust in superiors?
- (12) Is the Likert management system approach applicable to higher educational institutions?

Significance of the Study

The primary significance of this study is to bring about a greater awareness of leadership behavior and how this

behavior affects the organizational climate in institutions of higher education. For years, college administrators have managed higher education organization by using the "crisis management" technique. There is little or no planning and decisions are usually made without accurate data. This technique was effective when financial resources were plentiful, and the staff was content with just being on a college or university campus. However, contemporary society is more complex and demands more from its work environment. Job satisfaction is a major factor with the contemporary employee. Higher education faculty and administrative staff are no longer just trying to satisfy their physiological needs but instead they are striving to meet their social and psychological needs. Also research reveals that university faculty and administrative staff have a need to be accepted by peers, receive recognition for accomplishments, establish their own identity, have input into the decision-making process, work in an environment that is conducive to intellectual growth, and have an opportunity to strive for self-actualization. Rensis Likert, for example, points out that

. . . leadership and other processes of the organization must be such as to ensure a maximum probability that in all interactions and in all relationships within the organization, each member, in the light of his background, values, desires, and expectations, will view the experience as supportive and one which builds and maintains his sense of personal worth and importance (Likert, 1967).

If education is to respond to the contemporary faculty and administrative staff, the practices of its institutions must become responsive to the psychological and social needs of faculty and administrative staff. These needs must be dealt with in a positive manner. The educational administrator must (1) realize that every person is different, (2) visualize each as a vital part of the administrative or faculty team, (3) place value upon each person's experience, (4) seek cooperation which is essential, and (5) recognize that leadership enriches, rather than captivates. The feelings of the individual comprising the organization have a definite effect on how management is implemented. The observable patterns of behavior throughout the organization are indexes of the relative health or sickness of the organization. While many positive changes have occurred, the need for even more change is still apparent.

Statement of Hypotheses

The hypotheses of this study are:

1. That a positive correlation exists between organizational climate and leadership style;
2. That participatory management is a more acceptable style of leadership for higher educational institutions; and
3. That defensive leadership behavior is not conducive to the climate of the academic community.

Basic Assumptions

The following basic assumptions were made:

1. Some aspects of behavior are influenced by length of time serving in the organization and serving under the supervision of the specific leader.
2. Some aspects of behavior are influenced by personal and professional growth.
3. Each faculty and academic staff member is basing his/her evaluation on his/her preferred leadership style and his/her assessment of his/her particular organization climate.
4. The psychological and social aspects of behavior are influenced by type of college or university and the philosophy of that particular college or university.

Limitations

Limitations of this study are:

1. The findings of this study will be limited to college and university faculty and staff in the colleges selected for this study.
2. The population from which the sample was drawn includes a random sample of the faculty and staff.
3. The subjects for the study were limited to the professional faculty and staff.

Definitions

The following terms are defined to promote clarity in regard to their use in the study. An attempt to operationalize these definitions has been made whenever possible.

Hierarchy of Needs. A construct in Maslow's theory of motivation. The theory postulates that human needs consist of the hierarchy: physiological, security, affiliation, esteem, and self-actualization needs. The theory suggests that the lower-level needs must be satisfied before higher-order needs come into play and that once lower-level needs are satisfied, they lose their motivational importance.

Decision Theory. A body of analytical tools including logic, mathematical models (especially models that use probability theory), and diagrams to be used in decision making.

Related Definitions

Likert (1967) in his studies found the following management systems prevailing in an organization.

Exploitative authoritative (System 1). Management is seen as having confidence or trust in subordinates, since they are seldom involved in any aspect of the decision-making process. The bulk of the decisions and the goal setting of the organization are made at the top and issued down the chain of command. Subordinates are forced to work with fear, threats, punishment, and occasional rewards and need satisfaction at the physiological and safety levels.

Benevolent authoritative (System 2). Management is seen as having condescending confidence and trust in subordinates, such as master has toward servant. While the bulk of the decisions and goal setting of the organization

is made at the top, many decisions are made within a prescribed framework at lower levels. Rewards and some actual or potential punishment are used to motivate workers.

Consultative authoritative (System 3). Management is seen as having substantial but not complete confidence and trust in subordinates. While broad policy and general decisions are kept at the top, subordinates are permitted to make more specific decisions at lower levels. Communication flows both up and down the hierarchy. Rewards, occasional punishment, and some involvement are used to motivate workers. There is a moderate amount of superior-subordinate interaction, often with a fair amount of confidence and trust.

Participative Group (System 4). Management is seen as having complete confidence and trust in subordinates. Decision making is widely dispersed throughout the organization, although well integrated. Communication flows not only up and down the hierarchy but among peers. Workers are motivated by participation and involvement in developing economic rewards, setting goals, improving methods, and appraising progress toward goals. There is extensive, friendly superior-subordinate interaction with a high degree of confidence and trust (Hersey and Blanchard, 1972).

Leadership Style.

It refers to the characteristic way in which a given leader relates to subordinates and the task assigned to the group. Leadership style is considered

to be primarily a function of the leader's personality. Although many terms have been used to describe leadership style, most classifications result in two broad groups: those who are essentially interested in maintaining good interpersonal relationships, and those who are essentially interested in the accomplishment of the task (Sisk, 1972, p. 322).

Organizational Climate. Organizational climate may be defined as "the set of characteristics that describe an organization and that (a) distinguish the organization from other organizations, (b) are relatively enduring over time, (c) influence the behavior of people in the organization" (Forehand and Gilmer, 1964, pp. 361-382).

Effective Leader. The effective leader is one who acts as a catalyst, a consultant, and a resource to the group. His job is to help the group to grow, to emerge, and to become more free. He serves the group best when he is a whole person, is direct, real, open, spontaneous, permissive, emotional, and highly personal. The leader at his best is an effective member. He acts in such a way as to facilitate group strength, individual responsibility, diversity, non-conformity, and aggressiveness. The good leader tends not to lead. He permits, feels, acts, relates, fights, talks/acts human as do other members of the group and organization. The leader is present, available, and with the group as a person, not as a role (Gibb, 1964, p. 124).

Authoritarian or Defensive Leadership. Authoritarian or defensive leadership is highly inappropriate and perhaps

even fundamentally dissonnant with another viable side of the world we live in: with education for growth, intimacy, authenticity, humanness, and creativity; with the Judea-Christian ethics of love, honesty, intimacy, faith, cheek-turning, and brotherhood; with a climate of research, inquiry, scholarship, contemplation, and learning; with cooperation, group planning, team building, and various successful forms of group effort; with the new emerging models of industrial organization; with the world of ambiguity, feeling, conflict, sorrow, creativity, and diversity; with many new and exciting developments in education, architecture, the creative arts, economics, management, and all phases of modern life; in short, with the world of human beings, with people. Gibb (1964) emphasizes this crucial need of administration to understand the conflicts of modern life:

It is essential today that those who are administratively responsible for the colleges and universities of America see clearly this conflict and its implications for all facets of American life. It has been observed that much of the disfunctional disturbance that the papers report daily from the college campuses are created as unintended, but inevitable effect of defensive leadership practices among administrators of American colleges (Gibb, 1964, p. 18).

Such "defensive leadership" too often results in fear and distrust. The defensive leader or administrator rationalizes the service of his need by developing formal and informal leader theories, which both justify and camouflage the leaders or administrators and/or hostilities. The defensive leader can counteract his feeling of inferiority by assuming that his

subordinates are less than they actually are, and he can service his hostile feelings by keeping the subordinate in demeaning, dependent, and inferior roles in relation to himself and to leadership as a class. Defensive leadership theories and practices permeate our society.

Governance Styles

Autocratic Administrative Dominance. The characteristics of autocratic administrative dominance are: (1) the administrator operates with traditional line and staff concept; (2) the administrator makes work decisions on a unilateral basis; (3) the administrator directs people; and (4) the faculty is informed of decisions, after decisions have been made (Miller, 1976).

Semi-Autocratic Administrative Primacy. The characteristics of semi-autocratic administrative primacy are: (1) the faculty is asked to react to decisions that have already been made by administration; (2) authority fully resides with the administrator; (3) faculty in-put comes from ad-hoc committees and standing committees appointed by administrators; and (4) committees are advisory in nature (Miller, 1976).

Shared Authority. The characteristics of shared authority are: (1) the administration, faculty, and students retain certain autonomy through mutually agreed upon restraints and constraints; (2) collective bargaining is instrumental in decision-making; (3) the administration and faculty work in

advisory relationships; (4) compromise is the key to decision-making; and (5) both have deliberative bodies (Miller, 1976).

Humanistic Democratic. The characteristics of humanistic democratic are: (1) a positive work-climate is established; and (2) emphasis is given to team-work and a "we" attitude (Miller, 1976).

Faculty Dominance. The characteristics of faculty dominance are: (1) the authority of decision-making rests in the hands of the faculty; (2) the administrator is perceived as non-specialized resulting in administrators being elected by faculty and being rotated in and out of administrative positions in a very casual manner; (3) committees are elected by faculty; and (4) the faculty has wide discretion in the conduct of professional activities (Miller, 1976).

Definition of Man

Social Man. Elton Mayo (1945), one of the Hawthorne researchers, developed a set of assumptions about the worker which reflects a model that emphasizes the social man: (1) A worker is basically motivated by social needs and determines his basic sense of identity through relationships with others. (2) As a result of the industrial revolution and the segmenting of tasks into specific activities, meaning has gone out of work itself for many workers, who--now alienated--seek its meaning in the social relationships available on the job. (3) Working-man is more responsive to the social forces of

his peer group than to the incentives and controls of management. The working group can often determine and control what is a normal rate of production despite management's frenzied efforts to increase output. In another work-group in the Hawthorne plant, one new worker was at first a "rate buster"-- she turned out almost twice as many products a day as the others. Soon, however, the other women convinced her what was an appropriate or justified rate. (4) Working man is responsive to management to the extent that a supervisor can meet a subordinate's social needs and needs for acceptance (adapted from Schien, 1965).¹

Self-Actualizing Man. For the leader who adopts the view of man as self-actualizing, he is concerned about his employees, but he is more interested in making their work meaningful and satisfying than in fulfilling their social needs. Workers will be given as much responsibility as they can handle; and as they achieve certain degrees of skill and responsibility, they are encouraged to move upward. According to the self-actualizing concept, man is seen as intrinsically motivated; that is, he has deep personal internalized reasons for doing a good job. He takes pride in his work because it

¹Despite the fact that Mayo's model of the worker as a social being was an improvement over the rational-economic conception of man, it was justifiably criticized by liberal sociologists such as C. Wright Mills (1948) as being pro-management and seeking the worker as only a means to ends defined by the company ownership.

is his work. (Prior conceptions saw man as extrinsically motivated; reasons for working were artificially related to the job.) If we ask people who feel good about their jobs, as Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959) have done, their reasons are often centered around their accomplishments and their feelings of increasing job competency. Argyris (1964) and others have indicated there is a great risk that rejecting self-actualization as a goal can lead to a waste of human resources, which is our most precious commodity.

Thus, according to the assumptions of Social Man, the tasks of a shop foreman or department chairman require that some attention be given to the needs of his subordinates. Even with feelings of alienation, workers may perform tolerably or adequately, but productivity (as well as worker morale and satisfaction) can be increased by a leader's or manager's recognition of the worker's needs. A variety of studies in the 1940s and 1950s demonstrated the usefulness of the conception of Social Man. Many of these studies were stimulated by the thinking of Kurt Lewin, the father of group dynamics, who sensitized industry to the powerful effect of participatory decision-making upon job efficiency.

Complex Man. Since the ramifications of a complex view of the nature of the worker are complex in and of themselves, Schien's description is quoted at length:

Man is not only complex, but also highly variable; he has many motives which are arranged in some sort of

hierarchy of importance to him, but his hierarchy is subject to change from time to time and situation to situation; furthermore, motives interact and combine into complex patterns (for example, since money can facilitate self-actualization, for some people economic strivings are equivalent to self-actualization).

Man is capable of learning new motives through his organizational experiences, hence ultimately his pattern of motivation and the psychological contact which he established with the organization is the result of complex interaction between initial needs and organizational experiences.

Man's motives in different organizations or different parts of the same organization may be different; the person who is alienated in the formal organization may find fulfillment in his social and self-actualization needs in the union or in the informal organization; if the job may engage some motives while other parts engage other motives.

Man can become productively involved with organizations on the basis of many different kinds of motives; his ultimate satisfaction and the ultimate effectiveness of the organization depend only in part on the nature of his motivation. The nature of the task to be performed, the abilities and experiences of the person on the job, and the nature of the other people in the organization all interact to produce a certain pattern of work and feelings. For example, a highly skilled but poorly motivated worker may be as effective and satisfied as a very unskilled but highly motivated worker.

Man can respond to many different kinds of managerial strategies, depending on his own motives and abilities and the nature of the task; in other words, there is no one correct managerial strategy that will work for all men at all times (Schien, 1965, p. 60).

The leader who holds Schien's belief in the complexity of man must be sensitive to individual differences in the needs, fears, and abilities of workers. He must be able to appreciate these differences and adapt to each. Unlimited or unqualified application of any one of these previous conceptions by a leader will be wrong in many cases.

Participative Management. If employees have a say in affairs and are able to influence those that directly affect them on the job, their satisfaction is higher and sometimes so is their productivity. A number of years ago, Lester Cock and John French, in a study of a garment manufacturing firm, showed that by allowing employees to participate in decisions that affected their work assignments and job content, turnover was reduced, learning new jobs was accelerated, and change was accepted, not resisted (Cock and French, 1948).

The employee is given the opportunity to exercise more responsibility, judgment, and discretion in their job. They are informed before major decisions affecting the employees are finalized. There is two-way communications and group participation in the decision-making process. Most of all, the employee is made to feel that he had input into the decision-making process. It also allows an individual an opportunity for self-expression--it provides a kind of forum and generally sympathetic listener.

Leadership. Leadership is a process by which people are directed, guided, and influenced in choosing and achieving goals. In any undertaking, a leader mediates between the organization and the individual so that the degree of satisfaction to both is maximized.

Leadership roles fall into two broad classifications--task and motive. The task role is when a leader organizes

and influences a group to achieve some specific set of objectives. Whether such objectives are imposed on a group from above, whether they are imposed laterally, as in a work flow, or whether they arise spontaneously from the group itself, the leader must still play his task role in order to remain a leader and to facilitate the accomplishment of the goals of the group. The motive role allows the individual needs of the group's members to be satisfied. The leader playing the motive role plays a dual part. Not only does he help the members of the group to experience need and satisfaction, but also, at the same time, he smoothes a way for task performance.

Authoritarian Leadership. An authoritarian, or autocratic, leader is one who makes decisions, giving orders without consulting others. The authoritarian leader centralizes power and decision-making in himself, and he structures the complete work situation for his employees. They do what they are told. He takes full authority and assumes full responsibility (Davis, 1956).

This type of leadership provides strong motivation, and because only one person decides for the group, it allows for quick decision-making. The main disadvantage of the style is that people do not like it, but it does have its place in the design of management. It is recommended when the organization is new, when there are tendencies to ignore

or slight administrative necessities, when other departments or divisions feel another is too free wheeling, or when the nature of a project requires more rigid controls (Evans, 1969).

Democratic Leadership. The democratic leader decentralizes power and encourages his subordinates to use their own initiative in handling the details of their jobs (Filley and House, 1969). The leader assumes that the subordinates want to do their best and that he should make it easy for them by supporting them, rather than commanding them. This style is also referred to as participative or consultative leadership because such a leader participates or consults with his subordinates concerning decisions that will affect them or decisions that they will have to carry out. It is said that this type of leadership leads to close cooperation and increases the subordinate's motivation to attain the goal of the group.

This pattern is favored when there are tendencies within the group to resent supervision, and when the subordinates are better qualified technically than the supervisor, when they are familiar with the administrative functions, and when proper planning and decisions can be based only on new discoveries, innovations, and findings, that are familiar only to the group (Sartain and Baker, 1965).

Laissez-Faire Leadership.

In Laissez-Faire leadership, the leader adopts a "hands off" attitude, and helps only when asked. This type of leadership is recommended by its proponents when the group is composed of individuals

competent to perform on their own, when supervision is new or not yet accepted by the group, or when experience has shown that the group functions more effectively when authority is applied sparingly (Evans, 1969).

An experimental study by Lippett and White in 1953 reached the following conclusions:

Nineteen out of twenty members preferred the democratic leader, and more dissatisfaction was expressed in autocracy than in democracy. In the democratic group there was a greater "we" feeling, more frequent mutual praise and more readiness to share group property than in the other leadership situations (Lippett and White, 1966).

Summary

The purpose of this chapter has been to give an overview of leadership or organizational behavior in a complex society. Definitions of terms relating to leadership and organizational processes were introduced. The researcher tried to explain how leadership and organizational processes evolved to be what they are today. The interrelation between leadership behavior and organizational climate was introduced.

The critical question is what impact does the leadership style exhibited have on the health of the organization. The researcher's intent is to evaluate the interrelation between these variables.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Selected Theories of Leadership

There have been many studies on leadership theory. The most traditional pattern for dealing with leadership style has been to describe a demonstrative behavior as being authoritarian, democratic, or laissez-faire, but today the trend is changing.

Filley and House (1969) write that one of the most researched and least understood variables of the management process is leadership. Until recently, it was generally assumed that the world was divided into leaders and followers, or subordinates. The leaders were a select few who could drive or inspire other people to achieve more than they would ordinarily. Baumgartel (1957) points out the necessity of distinguishing between leadership and management:

Leadership involves an interaction between persons involving an influence attempt by one over the other(s) with certain behavioral end results. It is one of the mechanisms called upon to serve the management function of motivating a consistently acceptable level of effort toward the achievement of organization objectives. The manager then is responsible for utilizing leadership in order to achieve organizational effectiveness (Administrative Science Quarterly, 1957, pp. 344-360).

To Baumgartel, authoritarian (directive) leadership is characterized by a moderate degree of interaction and involvement.

Democratic (participatory) leadership was characterized by a high degree of interaction and involvement with subordinates and joint decision-making practices. Laissez-faire leadership was characterized by a low degree of interaction and involvement and high autonomy in subordinate decision-making.

Even though much research has been conducted on the impact of leadership, the results are not clear. Kast and Rosenweig (1969), for example, note that "effectiveness of various leadership styles has been the subject of intense research but to date, there are no clear-cut conclusions concerning the relative merits of autocratic, democratic or laissez-faire styles." They feel, as do others, that a particular leadership style develops as the result of established objectives, subordinates or followers, and the situation.

One point is generally agreed upon in the literature, and this is the importance of the concept of flexibility in leadership style (Kast, 1969). To the end it would seem to be most important for an administrator to learn as much as possible with respect to research on leadership (Filley and House, 1969). This is borne out by Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1938) who say:

. . . the successful leader is one who is keenly aware of those forces which are most relevant to his behavior at any given time. He accurately understands himself, the individual and group he is dealing with and the company and broader social environment in which he operates.

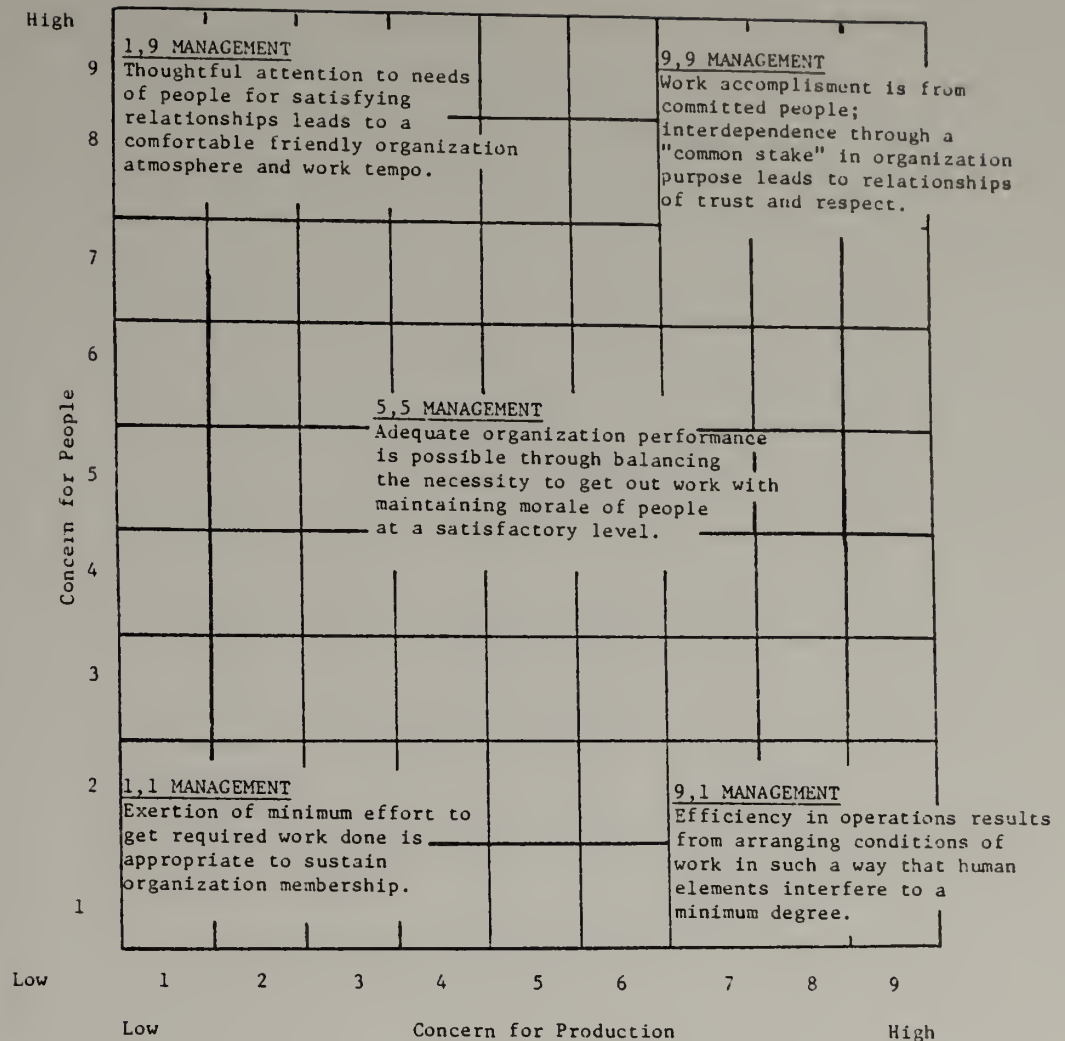
Leadership Style

Two approaches may be taken in the consideration of "styles"--unitary and flexible. The unitary concept states that administrators and managers usually adopt one basic style to meet all of the various needs of the organization. This concept is best represented by Blake and Mouton's managerial grid theory. The flexible (also called situational or contingency leadership) style revolves around the concept that different situations require different behaviors. This concept is represented by the "Life Cycle Theory" of Hersey and Blanchard. The managerial grid theory tends to be an attitudinal model which measures predispositions of managers, while the "Life Cycle Theory" tends to a behavioral model which focuses on the maturity of the individual and task structure.

The concepts which distinguish the various unitary styles (positions on the grid) are (1) "concern for people" and (2) "concern for production." Each of these assumptions forms the axes of a square grid. Leadership can thus be described in terms of the relative importance of each factor. (See Figure 1.)

Unitary Concepts

The 1,1 type of manager or leader can best be described as a person who simply strives to maintain his position in the organization. He demonstrates a minimal concern for production or for human relations. The 9,1 style of leadership



Source: Blake and Mouton (7, p. 10).

Fig. 1 -- Managerial Grid

has a high concern for productivity or efficiency and a low concern for people. His style is chiefly authoritarian. The 5,5 manager is concerned with satisfying both his subordinates and his superiors--without offending either group. This person is mainly concerned with being liked by others in the organization. The first concern, on the other hand, of the 1,9 style of leader is people; his least concern is with efficiency or level of production. The 9,9 style of manager exhibits a high concern for both people and production.

Of the four types of management, the 9,9 leader seems closer to realizing an effective leadership style. A high concern for people is coupled with a high concern for production. Unlike the other basic approaches, it is assumed that there is no necessary and inherent conflict between organizational purposes and the needs of people. Under 9,9, effective integration of people with production is possible by involving them and their ideas in determining the conditions and strategies of work (Blake and Mouton, 1964).

The leader's main responsibility is to see that planning, directing, and controlling are accomplished on a sound basis. The persons best qualified to do this are those with the most at stake, regardless of assignment. The leader still retains responsibility for work direction and planning. The leader must create appropriate conditions of work where people understand their responsibilities, where they have stakes in the outcome, and where their ideas make a real contribution to the

result obtained. This concept of participation is based on the notion that when people can think, and when they have influence on outcomes, they support rather than comply or resist (Blake and Mouton, 1964).

The leader, having helped to establish direction, then allows those persons who are closest to the situation to direct themselves. The leader may be asked to give advice, consultation, and help to remove obstacles to progress. When mistakes occur, the leader will use that situation as a learning stimulus. An academic leader does not abdicate control or power in this type of leadership style. The 9,9 style is, however, a much different style in regard to how control and authority are exercised (Blake and Mouton, 1964).

Conflict resolution is handled by direct confrontation, which involves facing up to the conflict and getting it out on the table where it can be examined and evaluated by all who are a party to it. In this way, the reasons for it can be examined and assessed. The conditions for its resolution then can be discussed by those who are involved.

The personal characteristics of a 9,9 leader are described by Blake and Mouton (1964):

The person with a 9,9 predisposition places value on getting sound and creative decisions. He is not so interested in making a decision based on his own convictions, but rather his interest is in reaching out for solutions that represent best solutions. In doing so, he listens for and seeks out ideas, opinions, and attitudes different than his own. The 9,9 focus is on the quality of thinking and its essential validity, regardless of whether it represents his own or another person's view,

or emerges from interaction. He is a real starter in the sense of initiating action, but he also follows through. Others tend to pick up his sense of confidence in an enthusiastic way.

He is likely to have clear convictions of his own, though he responds to valid ideas by changing his mind. When conflict arises between himself and others, he tries to identify reasons for it and to resolve underlying causes by working them through. He rarely loses his temper, even when stirred up. His humor fits the situation. Feelings, attitudes, and the more human elements of people, whether interpersonal or work related, are not regarded as barriers, but as capable of facilitating work effort. As such they are seen to be significant elements of work situations, which should be managed.

In short, the 9,9 leader successfully balances a "concern for people" with "concern for production"; his modus operandi is effective interpersonal communication, and as a result, production increases.

McGregor's Theory. Douglas McGregor (1960) developed his theory of human behavior in organizations. McGregor believed that traditional organizations were characterized by centralized decision-making, hierarchical structure, and control of employees' efficiency. He assumed certain things about human behavior from which were derived their organizational behavior. He concluded that if people desired external control, then it would only be natural to motivate them by providing these controls in the form of dictating work loads, determining adequate salaries, and establishing fringe benefits. McGregor continued to describe his view of human behavior, with its applications for managing employees, and called it "Theory X." He stated that the

central principle of organization which derives from Theory X is that of direction and is controlled through the exercise of authority.

The manager who adheres to the assumptions of Theory X will most likely employ the following communication behaviors in his organization:

(1) Most messages will flow in a downward direction from top down through the rest of the line organization.

(2) Decision-making will be concentrated in the hands of a few people toward the top of the organization.

(3) Upward communication will be limited to suggestion boxes, grapevines, and "spy systems" (employees who secretly report information about other employees to manager).

(4) Little interaction will take place with his employees, and always with fear and distrust.

(5) Downward communication will be limited to informative messages and announcements of decisions, thus creating conditions for the grapevine to prosper as a means of supplementing the inadequate message from above.

(6) Since upward communication is almost nonexistent, decision-making will often be based on partial and often inaccurate information. Eventually, morale will be depleted and production will be impeded.

McGregor hypothesized another set of assumptions about human behavior which he believed more accurately portrayed

how best to motivate people to work. He called this assumption Theory Y and based them upon the concept of integration: "The central principle which derives from Theory Y is that of integration: the creation of conditions are such that members of the organization can achieve their own goals best by directing their efforts toward success of the enterprise" (McGregor, 1960).

The manager who adopts Theory Y's assumptions of human behavior will most likely be responsible for the following communication behaviors:

(1) Messages travel up, down, and across the organization.

(2) Decision-making is spread throughout the entire organization. Even important decisions involve inputs from members at all levels of the line organization.

(3) Since feedback is encouraged in an upward direction--since management "listens"--no supplemental upward system is required.

(4) Frequent, honest interaction takes place with employees in an atmosphere of confidence and trust.

(5) The flow of messages downward is usually sufficient to satisfy the needs of employees.

(6) Decision-making is based upon messages from all levels of the organization, thus improving the accuracy and quality of the decisions.

Employees recognize their input in the decision-making process and respond appropriately to management since they perceive their goals to be integrated with those of management (see Table 1).

Theory X and Theory Y make certain general assumptions about people and their work environment. One of the major criticisms of this model is the lack of identity for the individual employee. The individual employee is expected to function under one or more of these general categories. Many of the individual employee's personal needs are not met using McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y. There is no emphasis placed on assessing the needs of the employee.

The Leadership Continuum. Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1938) believe that a manager often has difficulty in deciding what type of leadership action is the most appropriate in a given situation. Tannenbaum and Schmidt suggest that a leader should not choose a strict "boss-centered" or "subordinate-centered" style, but rather should be flexible enough to cope with different kinds of situations (see Figure 2). Perhaps the most effective leader would be the one who can adapt his style according to the situation, who can delegate authority effectively because he considers among other things his own capabilities, his subordinate's capabilities, and the goals to be accomplished (Tannenbaum and Schmidt, 1938).

This model has application for organizations where a

TABLE 1

ASSUMPTIONS OF MCGREGOR'S THEORY X AND THEORY Y

Theory X	Theory Y
1. The average human being has an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if he can.	1. The expenditure of physical and mental effort in work is as natural as play or rest.
2. Therefore, most people must be controlled, coerced, directed, and threatened with punishment if management is to get them to put forth adequate effort toward the achievement of organizational objectives.	2. External control and the threat of punishment are not the only means for bringing about effort toward organizational objectives. Man will exercise self-direction and self-control in the service of objectives to which he is committed.
3. The average human prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, has relatively little ambition, and wants security above all.	3. Commitment to objectives is a function of reward associated with their achievement.
	4. The average human learns, under proper conditions, not only to accept but to seek responsibility.
	5. The capacity to exercise a relatively high degree of imagination, ingenuity, and creativity in the solution of organizational problems is widely, not narrowly, distributed in the population.
	6. Under the conditions of modern industrial life, the intellectual potential of the average human being are only partially utilized.

Summarized from McGregor, The Human Side of Enterprise, pp. 33-48.

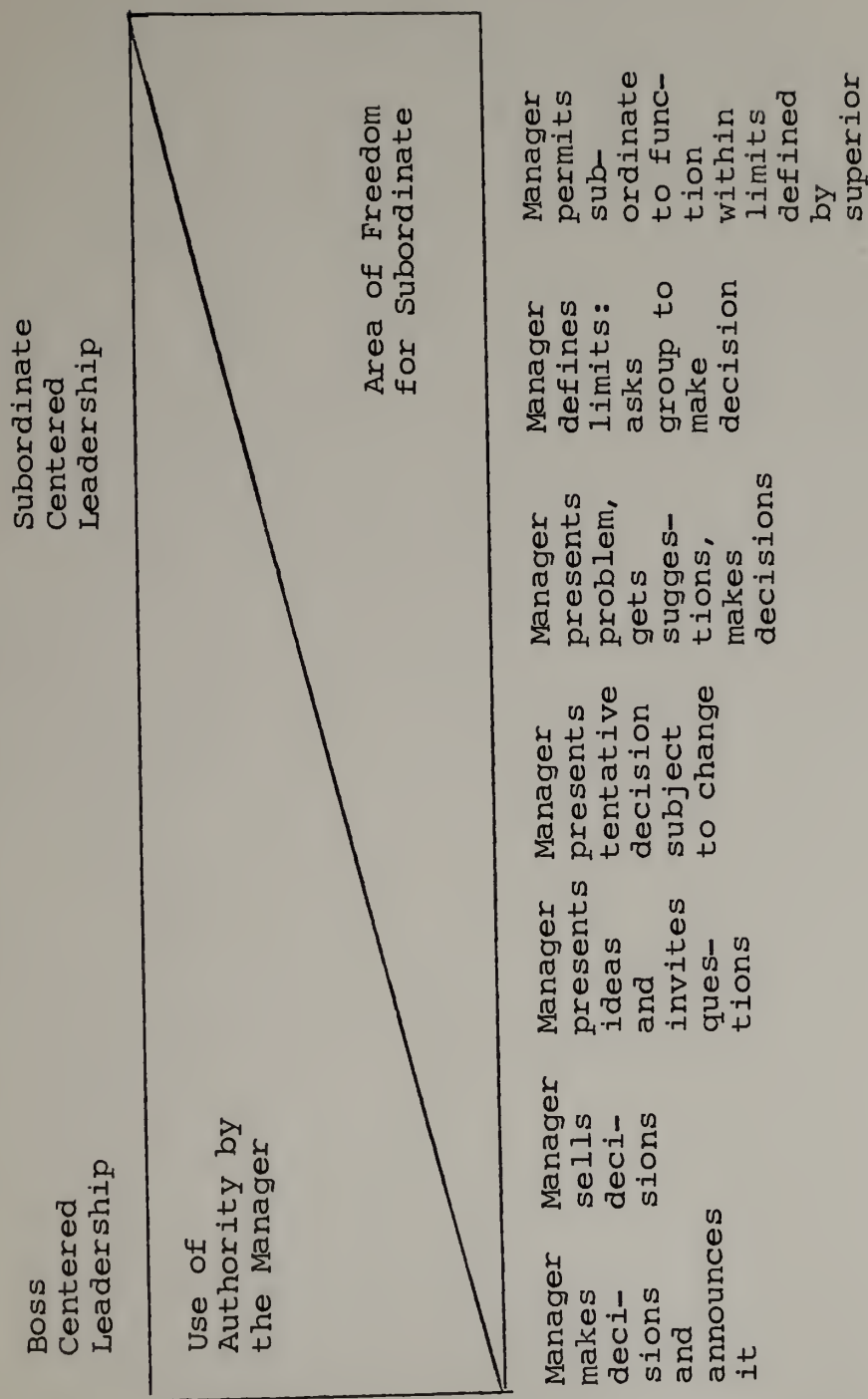


Fig. 2.---Continuum of Leadership Behavior

leader is managing diverse populations. Contemporary bureaucratic organization reduces the manager's effectiveness. Organizational policies and procedures impede the implementation of the subordinate-centered leadership style.

Flexible Concepts

Fiedler's "Contingency Theory of Leadership." One of the more contemporary theories is Fiedler's "Contingency Theory of Leadership." Fiedler develops a situational model of leadership. He specifies three leadership dimensions since they are assumed to be the situational factors which influence the leader's effectiveness. They are, in order of effect:

1. Leader-member relations. This refers to degree of confidence that subordinates have for the leader. It also entails the loyalty shown and attractiveness of the leader. The better the relations, the more favorable the situation for the leader.

2. Task structure. This refers to the degree to which the followers' jobs are routine, versus being ill-structured, and undefined. The more highly structured the task, the more favorable the situation for the leader.

3. Position power. This refers to the power inherent in the leadership position. It includes the rewards and punishments which are typically associated with the position, the leader's official authority (based on ranking in managerial hierarchy), and the support which the leader receives from his

superiors and the overall organization. The stronger the position power, the more favorable the situation for the leader.

By utilizing a three-dimensional model, Fiedler specifies the leadership style that is most appropriate in different situations. He relates leadership style to the three-dimensional measures of conditions favorable or unfavorable to the leader. The measure of leadership style adopted is one which discriminates between leaders who are permissive (tend to be permissive, considerate and foster good interpersonal relations among group members) and directive (tend to be directive, controlling, and more oriented toward task than toward people).

Fiedler's model suggests that leaders who are directive and leaders who are permissive can function best in certain types of situations. Instead of stating that a leader must adopt this or that style, Fiedler identifies the type of leader that functions best in a situation. Thus, if a leader is to be effective in most situations, he must be able to examine the situation and decide whether to provide structured or unstructured instructions concerning the problem or goal.

Fiedler assumes that any particular group situation could be ordered along a favorability continuum:

Condi- tion	Leader-member relations	Task structure	Position power	leadership style corre- lating with productivity
1	good	structured	strong	directive
2	good	structured	weak	directive
3	good	unstructured	strong	directive
4	good	unstructured	weak	permissive
5	moderately poor	structured	strong	permissive
6	moderately poor	structured	weak	no data
7	moderately poor	unstructured	strong	no relation- ship found
8	moderately poor	unstructured	weak	directive

On the basis of this data, Fiedler concludes that the style of leadership that is most effective is contingent upon the favorableness of the group-task situation. Directive leaders are more effective when the group-task situation is either very favorable or very unfavorable for the leader. Permissive leaders are more effective when the group-task situation is of intermediate favorability (Fiedler, 1967).

What Fiedler does is provide a model and set of principles that permit predictions of leadership effectiveness in interacting groups and allow a look at the factors effecting team performance. It goes beyond the traditional notions of selecting and training in achieving good leadership and shows that it can be accomplished by organizational engineering. By this is meant structuring the organization to complement the leadership talent available. This could be done by such means as changing the leader's position power (e.g. give him subordinates of equal or nearly equal rank or those who are

several ranks below him), changing the task structure (either detailing instructions or making them general), and/or changing the leader-member relations (e.g. increasing/decreasing group heterogeneity).

The research of Kayn and Katz (1953) found three dimensions of leader behavior which were related to productivity. These three dimensions were: (1) assumption of the leadership role, (2) closeness of supervision, and (3) the degree of employment-orientation. Gibson researchers made comparisons between high-producing and low-producing groups. The findings were summarized as follows:

(1) A high-producing manager assumes the leadership role, that is, he is not "one of the group."

(2) High-producing managers supervise less closely than low-producing managers.

(3) High-producing managers consider their subordinates as individual human beings, that is, they are more employee-oriented than low-producing managers.

Contingency Leadership Models. Morse and Lorsch (1970) conclude that the managerial style must be tailored to "fit the task and the people." Redding (1973) supports this position and points out several factors which might influence the success or failure of a particular management style.

It depends, that is, upon wide variety of situational factors, ranging from the personalities and cultural

backgrounds of organizational members to global variables like organizational technology and external forces in the total economy. The task facing researchers is to discover which contingency factors exercise what kinds of effects upon what people and what kinds of tasks, with what kinds of effects upon overall organizational performance.

A study by Cobb (1952) used the Goodenough Speed of Association Test to test differences between leaders and non-leaders. The results pointed to leaders as being objective, emotionally controlled, broad in their views of this world, and interested in activities beyond those immediately related to their personal lives. Non-leaders, who are romantic, dreamy, lacking in decisiveness, and uninterested in social organization, live in a small world concerned largely with clothing, good times, and food. It was also found that leaders scored higher on entrance examinations than non-leaders.

Wherry and Fryer (1963) looked into "buddy ratings" as predictors of leadership. The intent of the study was to cut down time needed to find leaders for training in the Air Force. Ratings were designed to be given by fellow students and instructors. It was found that the "buddy" ratings were the purest measure, even better than instructor ratings of the same subjects. This finding may have some impact on selections of academic administrators.

Another study by Anderson and Fiedler (1964) looked into the effect of participatory and supervisory leadership on group activity. As would be expected in the participation groups, the leaders were actively involved but allowed the group to discuss and come up with solutions or ideas with reference to a particular problem given them. In the supervisory group the leaders gave suggestions on procedure and praised or rejected ideas. The results showed that participatory groups came up with a greater quantity of solutions to problems, while the supervisory groups came up with a greater quality of group solutions (Fiedler, 1967).

A study by Denhardt (1970) looked into the effects of two styles of management within two industrial organizations. One style (A) depended totally on the authoritarian form of management. The other style (B) was a more open, "humanistic" style of management. Based on their perceptions as to the degree they participated in company affairs, Group A had less worker participation than Group B. Group A had less perceived worker fulfillment than Group B.

Another study by Lippett and White (1966) related an experimental study of leadership and group life. The specific problem was to test reaction to leaders who were autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire in their approach to leadership. Four clubs of eleven-year-old children with adult leadership were used.

Under the authoritarian leader, all policies regarding club activities and procedures were determined by the leader. In the democratic club, policies were a matter of group discussion, with the adult leader offering encouragement and assistance. In the laissez-faire club, the adult played a passive role and left complete freedom for group or individual discussion in relation to activity and group procedure. The results revealed that those involved in the authoritarian leadership responded with a dependent leaning on the adult leader, a relatively low level of frustration tension, and practically no capacity for initiating group action. Members of the laissez-faire and democratic clubs initiated a more personal and friendly approach to adult leaders and were also spontaneous in exchanging ideas toward their job and leader in an attitude survey. The printed questionnaire contains a series of questions on a wide variety of subjects such as the organization itself, working conditions, supervision, and chances for advancement. The children were given a simple method of checking to show their attitudes on the various questions. The children were able to respond freely.

Several of the leadership models mentioned in this section of the literature can be applied to any leadership situation.

The Four-Factor Theory of Leadership. Other research that has been done in the field of educational studies includes the Four-Factor Theory of Leadership. Bowers and Seashore (1966), having reviewed the major research programs and findings on leadership from 1950 to the mid-sixties, concluded that all had a great deal in common although they tended to use different terms and broke leadership behavior down into different descriptive units. Four dimensions emerged from these studies. They are:

(1) Support: This is any type of behavior which makes a group member have a feeling of personal worth and importance.

(2) Interaction facilitation: This is behavior which encourages mutual feeling and close relationship among group members.

(3) Goal emphasis: This is stimulation of enthusiasm for goal achievement and excellence of performance.

(4) Work facilitation: This is behavior which aids goal achievement by such things as scheduling, coordinating, planning, and providing resources such as tools, materials, and technical know-how.

Their findings are that if managers want to increase the extent of subordinates' support for one another, they must increase his own support and his emphasis on goals.

The Life Cycle Theory of Leadership. This is another model that has application for higher education organizations.

The Life Cycle Theory is an outgrowth of the Tri-Dimensional Leader Effectiveness model. The emphasis in the Life Cycle Theory of Leadership is on the behavior of a leader in relationship to his followers.

Blanchard and Hersey hypothesize that as the level of maturity of one's followers continues to increase, appropriate leader behavior not only requires less and less structure (task) while increasing but should eventually entail decreases in socioemotional support (relationship), as shown in Figure 2. Maturity has been defined as being the willingness and ability to take responsibility to complete a task; and the amount of task relevant education and experience of the individual or a group (Hersey and Blanchard, 1972). Age may be a variable but the main concern is with psychological age, not chronological age. Beginning with structured task behavior, which is appropriate for working with immature people, Life Cycle Theory suggests that leader behavior should move through (1) high task-low relationship behavior to (2) high task-high relationship and (3) high relationships-low task behavior to (4) low task-low relationship behavior, if one's followers progress from immaturity to maturity.

The researcher disagrees with the point that socio-emotional relationship may be decreased to a minimum once the individual or group has reached a certain level of maturity. The interaction between the supervisor and the subordinate

would depend to a great extent on the individual psychological and social needs of the individual or group members. It is the researcher's opinion that the personality of the individual or value system of the group must be also taken under consideration.

In any decision-making process, those who will be affected by the decision should be informed and, if possible, consulted. Even in such simple matters as physical changes in buildings or the grounds, informing and consulting students and faculty and in certain cases alumni can be of great value to morale. The goal is to help all who are involved in the institution to feel that the institution's business is basically their business. The application of this principle does not mean that decisions are bogged down in endless committees or fruitless discussion. In most cases, careful, authentic, and consistent information will do the job. No individual likes to feel that things which profoundly affect his interest and welfare are taking place without his knowledge. The idea is that simple (Pullias, 1972).

Organizational Climate

The leadership practice is a major force in creating the climate which influences direct outputs, such as satisfaction and production. Increased demands are being placed on management by individuals and by groups within organizations. Due to the complex society in which we live, these demands

are compounded. As the economic and social pressures for the faculty/staff member increases, so does the level of stress. The contemporary leader must be cognitive of the diverse needs of the faculty/staff member. Research should be continued in the field of organizational climate for educational institutions. Listed in this section are selected topics in the field of organizational climate.

Development of a Climate Theory. The first explicit study of psychological climate was initiated by Kurt Lewin in the 1930s. In seeking to describe the essential dynamics that linked human behavior to generalized environmental stimuli, he states:

To characterize properly the psychological field, one has to take into account such specific items as particular goals, stimuli needs, social relations, as well as more general characteristics of the field as the atmosphere (for instance, the friendly, tense, or hostile atmosphere) of the amount of freedom. These characteristics of the field as a whole are as important in psychology as, for instance, the field of gravity for the explanation of events in classical physics, psychological atmosphere are empirical realities and the scientifically describable facts (Lewin, 1966).

Lewin (1966) and Lippitt and White (1966) attempted to study climate as an "empirical reality" in an experiment involving the behavioral effects of three different leader-induced atmospheres. The three leadership roles were authoritarian, democratic, and laissez-faire.

In a restatement of their classic paper, "Patterns of Aggressive Behavior in Experimentally Created 'Social Climates,'" (1939) the authors reported:

The adult-leader role was found to be a very strong determiner of the pattern of social interaction and emotional development of groups. Four clear-cut types of social atmosphere emerged, in spite of great member differences in social expectation and reaction tendency due to previous adult-leader (parent, teacher) relationships.

The social climate itself proved more powerful than previously "acquired" behavior tendencies, and it was able to change the observed behavior patterns of group members. Lewin and his associates carefully reviewed the individual differences in the various boys' clubs studied and concluded:

It can be reported that in nearly all cases differences in club behavior could be attributed to differences in the induced social climate rather than to constant characteristics of the club personnel (Lippett and White, 1966).

They go on to state:

It was clear that previous group history (i.e., preceding social climates) had an important effect in determining the social perception on leader behavior and reaction to it by club members. A Club which had passively accepted an authoritarian leader in the beginning of its club history, for example, was much frustrated and resistive to a second authoritarian leader after it had experienced a democratic leader than a club without such a history (Lippett and White, 1966).

One of the most controversial theories in human resources movement has been that advocated by Frederick Herzberg of the University of Utah (see Herzberg, 1959, 1966, 1968). Herzberg spent several years developing and testing his theory of motivation which is based on the writing of Harlow and White. Herzberg's 1959 methodology (the critical incident method) called for interviewing employees to gather data on when they felt good or bad about their jobs. The interviewees were asked:

Think of a time when you felt exceptionally good or exceptionally bad about your job, either your present job or any other job you have had. This can be either

the "long-range" or the "short-range" kind of situation, as I have just described it. Tell me what happened (Herzberg, 1959).

Based upon the data from his interview, Herzberg identified two major factors which combine in motivating people to work. One factor called "hygiene" derives its potency from the environment; the other factor called "motivators" is derived from the job itself. Influencing the development of hygiene are company policy and administration, supervision, work relationship with supervisor, work conditions, salary, status, and security. Influencing the growth of motivators are achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, advancement, and growth. Herzberg contended that hygiene factors, if not satisfied, would lead to dissatisfaction with the job. He did not claim, however, that if all hygiene factors were satisfied, workers would be motivated. He concluded that motivated workers were those whose "motivators" were satisfied.

One framework for studying human needs was developed by Abraham Maslow (1954). According to Maslow, our basic human needs are arranged in a hierarchy according to their strength. Figure 3 illustrates this hierarchy of needs.

The physiological needs are at the top of the hierarchy because they tend to have the highest strength until they are satisfied. These are the needs we have to sustain human life--hunger, thirst, clothing, shelter, sex, etc. They are most commonly operationalized in society by money.

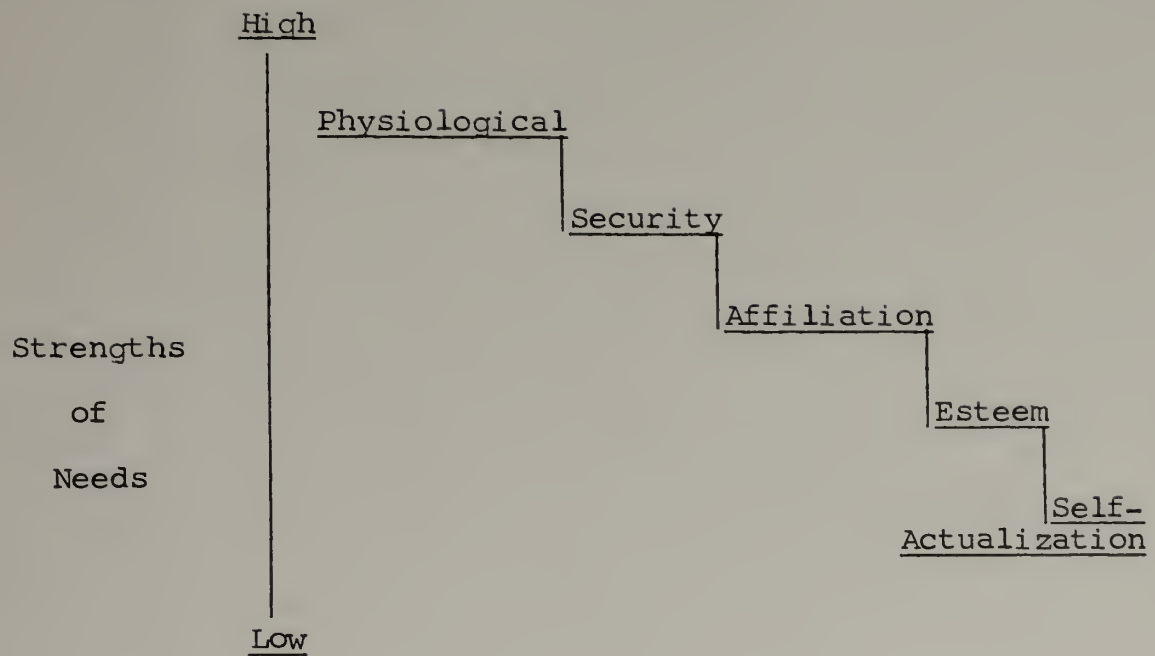


Fig. 3. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

As soon as the physiological needs are satisfied, the next level of needs--security--becomes predominant. These needs represent man's desire to be free from danger in the present and in the future. This is the need for self-preservation. In the academic community a professor may satisfy his security needs when he receives tenure, a student when he graduates.

When security needs are satisfied, affiliation (or acceptance) becomes the dominant need in the hierarchy. This need represents man's need to belong, to be accepted, to be liked, to be respected by friends.

The next level is recognition. After individuals achieve acceptance by their peer group, they feel that they must excel in it to get the esteem of their fellows. A professor who publishes ten articles a year may do so to gain recognition and esteem from his colleagues.

Self-actualization is the last of Maslow's hierarchy, and it is the most difficult need to satisfy. The self-actualized man has become what he is capable of becoming. He does what he thinks is important and receives satisfaction simply from the act itself. The professor who enjoys teaching satisfies his needs by teaching. The soldier may self-actualize himself when he sacrifices his life for his buddy.

Maslow felt that the hierarchy may not necessarily follow the above order for everybody. Some people may satisfy the affiliation need before they satisfy the physiological need.

The similarities between Herzberg's model and Maslow's hierarchy of needs can be seen in Table 2.

TABLE 2
COMPARISON OF HERZBERG'S MODEL AND
MASLOW'S HIERARCHY OF NEEDS

Maslow	Herzberg
Self-Realization and Fulfillment	Work itself Achievement Possibility of Growth Responsibility
Esteem and Status	Advancement Recognition
Belonging and Social Activity	Status Interpersonal Relations <u>Supervision</u> Peers Subordinates Supervision--Technical
Safety and Security	Company Policy and Administration Job Security Working Conditions
Physiological Needs	Salary Personal Life

Operant-Conditioning Based Management Approach. Nord (1969) has proposed that management theorists have ignored the work of B. F. Skinner (1948, 1953, 1954) in their predictions about the behavior of people in organizations. Nord has drawn an elaborate parallel between Skinner and McGregor and has concluded that their approaches are quite similar: both researchers were primarily concerned with environmental influences on human behavior. The major differences between the two appear to be in the amount of reliance upon the environment as the primary influencer of behavior, when McGregor more humanistically hypothesizes that man is also capable of inner direction of some of his behavior. Nord's comparison is excellent after comparing the amount of research validating Skinner's theory and the paucity of empirical research in support of traditional human resource approaches (McGregor, Likert, Herzberg).

Horowitz (1961) shows that subjects with a high need to achievement prefer jobs which allow them more personal responsibility for their behavior and its consequences. This finding is consistent with Litwin and Stringer theory of achievement motivation. Affective concern for setting high standards implies that an individual will seek to control the means of attaining his achievement goals. It also implies that he will desire concrete feedback on how well he is doing so that he can relate his progress to his standard.

Finally, when the situation becomes constrained so that success is not his success, the incentive value of succeeding at the task is greatly reduced. Achievement motivation is nurtured in a climate that allows individuals to assume a good deal of responsibility.

The challenge and responsibility factor measures the perception of challenge, demand for work, and opportunity for a sense of achievement. The challenge factor appears to be strongly, positively related to the development of achievement motivation among employees. That is, achievement motivation is nurtured in a climate that allows employees a significant amount of responsibility. Whyte (1955), Vroom (1962), and Kornhauser (1964) have reported that job satisfaction and level of performance are all directly related to the opportunities for "self-expression," "self-control," "participation," and "individual freedom and responsibility" present in the worker's environment.

There is also evidence that other factors play an important part. These include motivation, intelligence, training, and experience of leaders and group members as well as such extra-organizational factors as the community's economic situation (Halpin and Crofts, 1963).

Halpin and Crofts (1963) studied climate dimensions which they found in a public school organization. The climate dimension which they identified included the following:

1. Esprit. This is a morale dimension. It was a perception by the employee that his social needs are being satisfied and at the same time he is enjoying a sense of task accomplishment.

2. Consideration. This is a supportive dimension. The employee perceives his superiors as treating him as a genuine human being.

3. Production. This is a close-supervision dimension. The employee perceives management as closely supervising his job activities.

4. Aloofness. This is an emotional distance dimension. The employee perceives the superior behavior as formal and impersonal.

Organizational Climate Studies. Other studies have been conducted which investigate organizational climate. One study is the teaching referral hospital (Ivancevich and Lyon, 1972). Researchers were asked to study the climate of a 450-bed teaching-referral hospital. The study focused, among other things, upon hospital employee perceptions of their organizational climate and job satisfaction. The organizational climate variable was measured by Likert dimensions adapted from the Halpin and Crofts questionnaire (Halpin and Crofts, 1963). Using a seven-point scale, nurses, administrators, and diagnosticians were asked to respond to sixty-four questions concerning their perception of

climate. These questions were classified into eight climate dimensions: (1) aloofness; (2) consideration; (3) disengagement; (4) esprit, social needs are being satisfied; (5) hindrance, feeling that you are being burdened with the busy work; (6) intimacy, enjoyment of friendly social relationships found in the total organization; (7) production, perceive the superior as being highly directive; and (8) thrust, management demonstrates through task oriented behavior a desire to motivate the work force. The results showed that the nurses' self-actualization need satisfaction was influenced by a climate that was low in hindrance and disengagement and high in esprit, while the administrators derived self-actualization satisfaction in a climate that was high in thrust and consideration.

Another procedure for classifying organizational climate is offered by Forehand (1964). He proposed that organizational climate consists of a set of characteristics that describe an organization, distinguish it from other organizations, are relatively enduring over time, and influence the behavior of people in it. The characteristics include size, structure, leadership patterns, system complexity, goal direction, and communication networks. It is Forehand's assumption that these and other attributes interact to determine the totality of an organization's climate.

According to his theory, leadership practices are a

major force in creating the climate which influences directly outputs, such as satisfaction and production.

1. Goal Direction. The variation on goals forms one basis for classifying organizations. The variation affects the behavior of employees since the attainment of goals results in the issuing of rewards and sanctions.

2. Communication Networks. Communication networks are an important dimension of climate in that how the networks crisscross, through the organizations, provides insight into the status networks, authority arrangements, and group interactions.

3. System Complexity. Complexity can be defined in terms of the number and nature of interactions among parts of the systems. One part of the system is the various departments within the organizations.

The leader style practiced has some impact on the health of the organization.

An organizational development scheme using four systems of management was applied by Rensis Likert of the Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan (1967). These systems are numbered consecutively from number 1 to number 4. Number 1 is the most authoritarian and number 4 is the most participative. The names used for these systems are number 1, exploitive-authoritative; number 2, benevolent-authoritative; number 3, consultative; and number 4, participative group. According to Likert, an effective organization is

one which encourages supervisors to focus their primary attention on endeavoring to build effective work groups with high performance goals (1961, p. 7). In contrast, less effective organizations encourage supervisors to:

1. Break the total operation into simple component parts or tasks.
2. Develop the best way to carry out each of the component parts.
3. Hire people with appropriate attitudes and skills to perform each of these tasks.
4. Train these people to do their respective tasks in the specified best way.
5. Provide supervision to see that they perform their designated tasks using the specified procedures and at an acceptable rate as determined by such procedures as timing the job.
6. Where feasible, use incentives in the form of individual or group piece rates. (Likert, 1961, p. 6)

The points summarize the responsibilities of the manager in classical design theory. He states that system 1 organizations are ineffective because they no longer reflect the changing character of the environment within which the organization must operate. System 1 tends toward status quoism and conservatism. According to Likert, system 4 is the direction toward which the more productive and profitable organizations are moving (see Table 3).

Groups. The group is one other dimension of the organizational process that must be considered in this review. Group behavior can be used as a major indicator in diagnosing the organizational environment.

The effective group is defined by Likert (1967) as being part of a larger organization and not an isolated entity.

TABLE 3

CLASSICAL DESIGN AND SYSTEM 4 ORGANIZATION

Classical Design Organization		System 4 Organization	
1.	<u>Leadership process</u> includes no perceived confidence and trust. Subordinates do not feel free to discuss job problems with their superiors, who in turn do not solicit their ideas and opinions.	1.	<u>Leadership process</u> includes perceived confidence and trust between superiors and subordinates in all matters. Subordinates feel free to discuss job problems with their superiors, who in turn solicit their ideas and opinions.
2.	<u>Motivational process</u> taps only physical, security, and economic motives through the use of fear and sanctions. Unfavorable attitudes toward the organization prevail among employees.	2.	<u>Motivational process</u> taps a full range of motives through participatory methods. Attitudes are favorable toward the organization and its goals.
3.	<u>Communication process</u> is such that information flows downward and tends to be distorted, inaccurate, and viewed with suspicion by subordinates.	3.	<u>Communication process</u> is such that information flows freely throughout the organization--upward, downward, and laterally. The information is accurate and undistorted.
4.	<u>Interaction process</u> is closed and restricted; subordinates have little effect on departmental goals, methods, and activities.	4.	<u>Interaction process</u> is open and extensive; both superiors and subordinates are able to affect departmental goals, methods, and activities.
5.	<u>Decision process</u> occurs only at the top of the organization; it is relatively centralized.	5.	<u>Decision process</u> occurs at all levels through group processes; it is relatively decentralized.
6.	<u>Goal-setting process</u> , located at the top of the organization, discourages group participation.	6.	<u>Goal-setting process</u> encourages group participation in setting high, realistic objectives.

TABLE 3 (Continued)

Classical Design Organization	System 4 Organization
7. <u>Control process is centralized and emphasizes fixing of blame for mistakes.</u>	7. <u>Control process is dispersed throughout the organization and emphasizes self-control and problem solving.</u>
8. <u>Performance goals are low and passively sought by managers who make no commitment to developing the human resources of the organization.</u>	8. <u>Performance goals are high and actively sought by superiors, who recognize the necessity for making a full commitment to developing, through training, the human resources of the organization.</u>

Source: Adapted from Rensis Likert, The Human Organization (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1967), pp. 197-211, quoted in James L. Gibson, John M. Ivancevich, and James H. Donnelly, Jr., Organizations: Structure, Processes, Behavior (Dallas: Business Publications, Inc., 1973), p. 80.

Hence, individual group effectiveness is felt by all members and groups within the organization.

Likert (1967) lists twenty-four properties and performance characteristics of the ideal highly effective group. Many of the points overlap, and an attempt is made here to analyze, categorize, and summarize the major characteristics of effective groups.

(1) Possession of skills in the various leadership and membership roles and functions so as to facilitate interactions.

(2) Existence of a well-established, relaxed working relationship among members. Insensitivity and hostility must be minimized so as the group does not function adversely.

(3) Loyalty, confidence, and trust among members.

(4) Values and goals of the group must be a harmonious integration of the relevant values and needs of its members.

(5) Motivation of members to abide by values and to achieve goals set by the group. Importance to the group increases the likelihood of individual acceptance.

(6) Supportive atmosphere wherein ideas, comments, criticism, etc., are openly offered and received. Candidness and cooperativeness contribute to this atmosphere. This should apply to member-leader as well as to member-member communications.

(7) The group should help each member develop full potential and also utilize full potential. Relevant knowledge should be shared. Resources should be used efficiently.

(8) Stimulation of creativity; not stagnation. Flexibility, adaptability to new ideas is important.

(9) Stability as results from common goals and values. Changes are undertaken only after careful consideration of existing evidence.

(10) Carefully selected leader. The leader has the primary responsibility of linking his group with other groups as well as effectively coordinating and directing his own group. The leader should de-emphasize status and be "group-centered." The leader should promote and encourage the characteristics above.

The above characteristics are not listed in order of importance. They can each be thought of as being on a continuum varying from unfavorable to favorable. The more characteristics that lean toward the favorable end of the continuum, the more effective the group is likely to be.

Finally, it has been shown that the larger the group, the greater the difficulty in achieving effectiveness. Seashore (1954), Revans (1957), and Indik (1961) have found that group cohesiveness decreases as work groups have increased in size. Hence, in promoting effectiveness in groups it is desirable to keep them as small as possible.

Summary

The selected research literature related to leadership points to the management of organizational behavior. An organization may have all of the other necessary prerequisites for the attainment of goals, but if it does not have a leadership team capable of influencing followers, then the long-run effectiveness of the organization will be threatened. Effective leadership is a necessary condition for organizational adaptiveness, development, and survival.

Several theories of leadership were examined. The various theories provide the reader with an indication of (1) the difference of opinion among behavioral scientists, (2) the different framework employed to study leadership, (3) the similarities between many of the theories, and (4) humanistic and systems management appears to be the direction of the future research. This approach necessitates diagnostic skills on the part of the leader in human behavior.

The selected literature related to organizational climate presents a clear picture of organizational climate and its potential influence upon such effectiveness factors as output, job satisfaction, attitude about the work environment, and employee attrition. Organizational climate is a concept describing the subjective quality of a work environment that influences the behavior of employees within the environment.

The main group of organizational theorists have concentrated on the explicit or objective framework of organizations and the organizational structure. Other research has been conducted which investigates organizational climate.

C H A P T E R I I I

PROCEDURES AND METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The major intent of this study is to determine if there is a positive relationship between leadership style and certain variables of the organizational climate in a college or university setting. A secondary intent is to identify acceptable leadership behaviors for higher education administrators. The administrators and faculty to be studied have been selected from colleges and universities throughout the United States. This chapter deals with the procedures for identifying the population, the procedure for collection of data, the description of the instrument, the research design, and the procedure for analysis of data.

The Population

Today there are thousands of public and private colleges and universities in the United States. Participants were selected from institutions of higher learning in large urban and suburban areas. These colleges and universities represented five major regions of the United States: (1) the far west, (2) the north mid-west, (3) the southwest, (4) the northeast, and (5) the mid-central. The student populations

on those campuses range from 2,000 to 50,000. They have diverse curriculum, student population, and staff. These universities represent traditional liberal arts and sciences colleges, state agriculture colleges, vocational and technical colleges, and private colleges. Faculty and staff of these institutions are striving to meet the needs of a diverse changing society.

The sample represents an array of separate and diverse institutions: colleges, professional schools, junior colleges, universities, and multiversities, each with its own history, traditions, and goals.

The faculty consists of both full- and part-time appointments with administrative and faculty status, different degrees in discipline, different cultures, and sex. There are varying levels of enrollment and tenure at their respective institutions.

The sample consisted of fifteen colleges and universities throughout the United States, randomly selected from a list of colleges and universities. Included in the sample were ten four-year colleges and five junior colleges.

Selection of Sample

To obtain a representative sample, faculty and staff from ten four-year colleges and universities and five junior colleges throughout the United States were selected.

From a hat containing one hundred names of four-year

colleges and universities, ten names were drawn. These names were taken from a list of one thousand four-year colleges and universities selected according to student population, then divided into five geographical regions (two hundred from each region). The five regions were: (1) the far west: California, Oregon, Washington, Nevada, Utah, and Wyoming; (2) the mid-central: Nebraska, Iowa, Illinois, Kentucky, Indiana, and Missouri; (3) the north-central: Michigan, Minnesota, Wisconsin, North Dakota, South Dakota, and Ohio; (4) the northeast: Massachusetts, New Jersey, Maine, Vermont, and New York; and (5) the southwest: Texas, Louisiana, Oklahoma, and Arkansas. From each region, twenty schools with the largest population were selected. To further insure a representative sample, two names of schools were drawn from a hat to represent each geographical region. Each selection was made at random.

Seven surveys were sent to the academic dean or instructional dean of each of the ten selected four-year colleges. He/she was asked to distribute them to their faculty and staff for completion. The surveys were sent out during the last week of October 1978. Along with the surveys, a demographic data sheet was sent. A follow-up letter was sent out one week later. From the ten four-year institutions surveyed, the researcher received thirty response, a 43 percent return rate.

The five junior colleges were selected from a list of forty junior colleges in Texas. Six surveys were sent to

the respective deans of the five largest junior colleges in Texas. From the five two-year institutions surveyed, the researcher received fifteen responses, a 50 percent return rate. The overall return rate was 45 percent.

Research Design

This study is designed to determine the correlation between leadership style and organizational climate in a college or university setting. A secondary intent is to identify acceptable leadership behavior for higher education administrators. No experimental design is necessary. Likert's "Profile of Organizational Characteristics" questionnaire (1967) was used to survey the faculties and staffs. The comparative-casual type of investigation is being used.

The Description of the Questionnaire Used

Likert's "Profile of Organizational Characteristics Instrument" (1967) will be used to evaluate the leadership styles and diagnose the organizational climate (see Figure 2). The instrument evaluates three areas. The first area is the Causal Variables, the second the Intervening Variables, and the third the Control Variables (see Appendix C for detail).

The Causal Variables apply to the organization as a whole, to departments or divisions, and, where indicated, to each superior. Policies, philosophy, and values reflected in behavior will be evaluated. This instrument will evaluate to what extent the organization has contagious enthusiasm

regarding the importance and significance of the organization's mission; to what extent does the organization try to understand your problems and do something about them; how free do you feel to approach your superior and to communicate with him; to what extent does your organization try to keep you informed about matters related to your job; to what extent does confidence and trust permeate the organization; and to what extent are you treated as a human being rather than just another person to get the work out. Most of all, the Causal Variables evaluate the overall leadership style and organizational philosophy.

The Intervening Variables evaluate the leaders' behavior. The following behaviors are evaluated under the intervening variables:

1. The extent of member loyalty to your organization
2. The extent to which the goals of units and of individuals are felt to be of character to facilitate your organization's achievement of its objective; the extent to which they actually facilitate the achievement of its objectives
3. The level of motivation and level of goals among members of your organization with regard to such activities as:
 - a. Performance, including both quality and quantity of work done
 - b. Elimination of waste and reduction of costs
 - c. Improving services to students
 - d. Improving teaching techniques
 - e. Improving the organization, its procedures, the training and skill of personnel, etc.
4. The extent to which members of your organization feel that the atmosphere of the organization is supportive and helps each individual achieve and maintain his sense of personal worth and importance
5. The level of expectations of members of your organization with regard to such variables as:
 - a. Income and trends in income
 - b. Stability of employment
 - c. Promotions, training, and development opportunities

- d. Fringe benefits
- e. Working conditions
- f. Interesting and psychologically rewarding work
- g. Being involved in decisions relating to their work and conditions of employment
- h. All other aspects of their jobs and work
- 6. The level of satisfaction of members of your organization with regard to the variables listed under 5 above and such other variables as:
 - a. The organization itself, their department and their work group
 - b. The treatment they receive including, e.g., recognition of good work
 - c. All aspects of management system of the organization
- 7. The character of the interaction-influence system and the level of cooperative working relationship:
 - a. The extent to which cooperative attitudes exist
- 8. The degree of confidence and trust among peers, among different hierarchical levels, and among the different organizational units
- 9. The extent to which attitudes toward superiors, peers, subordinates, and other relevant persons in organization are favorable:
 - a. The level of peer-group loyalty (attitudes of subordinate members of work groups toward each other)
 - b. The level of total group loyalty (attitudes of all members of work group toward each other, i.e., peer-group loyalty, attitude toward superior, and attitude toward subordinates)
- 10. The level of cooperative attitudes within each unit of your organization, such as line and staff, divisions, departments, and districts:
 - a. The perceived and actual efficiency and adequacy of the communication process upward, downward, and laterally (see Appendix for detail)
 - b. The perceptual and motivational consequences of the decision-making process
 - c. The perceptual and motivational consequences of the influence, control, and coordination processes in each unit and throughout the organization

Leaders' Intervening behavioral variables

- 1. The extent to which there is wide participation in decision-making versus highly centralized decision-making

2. The extent to which members of your organization apply principles of supportive relationships to subordinates, peers, superiors, students, etc.
3. The extent to which members of your organization coach, counsel, and train their peers, share new knowledge on how best to do the job, and in other ways help to perform leadership roles.
4. The extent to which members of your organization constantly seek and actually carry out ways to improve methods and to eliminate waste and unnecessary work; extent to which they are well trained to do so.
5. The extent to which members of your organization have high performance standards and goals and through group norms encourage peers and others to share equally high standards
6. The extent to which the review and control functions are concentrated at the top of your organization or performed as coordinated and reciprocally responsible behavior by work groups throughout the organization at all levels
7. The extent to which a highly effective interaction-influence system is used and is being strengthened:
 - a. The operational character of the organizational structure
 - b. Extent to which this system employs group rather than man-to-man interaction
 - c. Extent to which this system sets and modifies its own objectives, goals, and procedures
 - d. Extent to which this interaction-influence system evaluation, builds, and maintains its multiple overlapping group structure and cooperative working relationship and thereby maintains a highly effective interaction-influence system
 - e. Extent to which the organization through the group-decision procedures of its interaction-influence system establishes, maintains, evaluates, and operates in an equitable manner its compensation and policies; extent to which these processes and policies are reviewed and evaluated at appropriate intervals and adjusted to maintain their equitable character
 - f. The character of the decision-making process of the interaction-influence system
 - g. Extent to which all the members in your organization perform communication processes well

The Likert Instrument divides management into the following four systems, on the X axis:

1. System 1 -- Exploitive authoritative (0-5)
2. System 2 -- Benevolent authoritative (5-10)
3. System 3 -- Consultative (10-15)
4. System 4 -- Participative group (15-20)

On the Y axis, Likert labels the operating characteristics.

The operating characteristics cover the following areas:

1. Leadership
2. Motivations
3. Communication
4. Interaction
5. Decision-making
6. Goal Setting
7. Control
8. Performance

Management efficiency is evaluated in these eight areas.

The purpose of the demographic data sheet is to obtain information on the status of faculty and staff in higher education. The instrument was constructed around three basic scales (see Appendix B):

1. Biographical data (information about the faculty or staff member)
2. Institutional and position data
3. Role perception

Scale I is needed to determine the relationship of certain background variables to the respondents' reaction to the questionnaire items. Each respondent will be asked to provide information regarding his/her sex, tenure with that particular institution, and highest degree earned, major teaching area. Scale II is used to ascertain institutional data and role data in order to make comparisons of institutional characteristics, present position, and role perception

of the respondents. Scale III is used to assess in depth the faculty and staff perceptions of their jobs and a diagnosis of the organizational climate.

Statistical Procedures

The returned questionnaires and demographic data sheets were coded and entered on an on-line terminal. These data were analyzed on an IBM 370 Computer System at The University of Texas at Dallas. Open-end responses were organized and categorized according to position. The presentation of data and appropriate statistical procedures were considered in three sections. The first section contains a descriptive summary of the sample analyzed by the parts of the questionnaire and demographic data sheets, biographical data, institutional and positional climate, and evaluation of leadership styles (see Appendix).

The second section contains the comparisons of the responses of the sample analyzed by the position of the respondents. Statistical comparisons were made from selected questions of the questionnaire using illustrative materials.

The third section includes the comparisons of the responses of the sample analyzed by independent and dependent variables. Statistical comparisons were made by including averages of each variable to determine the interrelationship between the variables.

The data were analyzed by using BMD2R-Stepwise Regression Analysis. This program is the property of The Health Science Computing Facility, University of California, Los Angeles, copyright 1977, Regents of the University of California. For copies you may write PDP-11 Version V2.0 Software Development, Inc., Middlebury, Vermont 05753. The Stepwise Regression Program computed the following:

- (1) Correlation Matrix
- (2) ANOVA at each step
- (3) Regression Coefficient Summary Table
- (4) Partial Correlation Summary Table
- (5) F-Ratio Summary Table
- (6) Residuals

The number of cases read was forty-five. Results are analyzed in Chapter IV.

Summary

This chapter discussed the various research methods, procedures for identifying the sample, procedure for data collection, the description of the questionnaire used, statistical procedures, and the method of organizing and correlating the data.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

The major intent of this study was to explore the relationship between leadership style and specific organizational climate variables in a college or university setting. A secondary intent was to research an acceptable leadership style in higher education. The faculty and staff studied were selected from colleges and universities throughout the United States. As stated in the previous chapter, they were randomly selected from different college populations. The sample should be representative of the academic community.

The first section contains a descriptive summary of the sample analyzed by parts of the questionnaire, demographic, institutional, and positional data. A copy of the questionnaire is given in Appendix A. The second section contains comparisons of the leadership and organizational climate variables. Statistical comparisons were made for each variable by averaging the sub-topics of each variable. Under each variable, there are sub-units: X_2 , motivation variable, seven; X_3 , communication variable, fourteen; X_4 , interaction-influence variable, seven; X_5 , decision-making variable, eight; X_6 , control process variable, five; X_7 , goal setting variable, three; and X_8 , performance goals and

training variable, three. The researcher is attempting to predict leadership style, variable Y, using variables X_2 , X_3 , ... X_8 , as the independent variables. A multiple linear regression equation is used for the predictive model.

Stepwise regression analysis was computed. The regression formula is: $Y = A + B_1 X_2 + B_2 X_4 + \dots + B_8 X_8$. The regression equation for assessing leadership style based on diagnosing the organizational climate study becomes

$$Y = 4.57 + .499 X_2 - .202 X_3 + .583 X_4 + .067 X_5 - .236 X_6 - .109 X_7 + .102 X_8.$$

When predicting the leadership style from these seven variables, the standard error of estimate is ± 2.69 . This means that the observed leadership style will be in the range ± 2.69 of the predicted leadership style, 68 percent of the time.

The results obtained in the data analysis of the hypothesis and Likert's Profile of Organizational Climate instrument are the following:

Results of the stepwise regression analysis testing these hypotheses are presented in Table 4. The model applied a stepwise regression analysis of each independent variable (X) in relation to the dependent variable (Y).

The motivation variable (X_2) F ratio is 42.01 at the .01 level while $T = F = 6.48$ and 43 df ($N - 2$) $P < .01$.

The leadership and organizational climate criterion was scaled from ratings of faculty/staff of various colleges

TABLE 4

STEPWISE REGRESSION SUMMARY TABLE

Step No.	Variable Entered	Variable Name	Multiple R	R^2	F-to-Enter	Number of Variables Included
1	2	Motivation	0.7030	0.4942	42.0138	1
2	4	Interaction-Influence	0.7271	0.5286	3.0660	2
3	6	Character of Goal Setting	0.7432	0.5524	2.1772	3
4	8	Decision-making	0.7493	0.5614	0.8261	4
5	3	Communication	0.7553	0.5704	0.8164	5
6	7	Character of Control	0.7579	0.5744	0.3574	6
7	5	Performance	0.7588	0.5758	0.1186	7

throughout the United States. Seven variables from the organizational climate survey comprised the predictors of leadership style. Means and standard deviations of the criterion and the seven predictors are given in Table 5; significant intercorrelations of the variables are given in Table 5. Computation produced the following results:

Multiple R = .703.

Comment: $R^2 = .56$ portion of variation (measured by sums of squares) of leadership styles which can be ascribed to variation in seven variables • $1 - R^2 = .44$, proportion of variation of leadership style which can be attributed to other sources of variation not measured.

The motivation variable accounts for 66 percent of the predictability of leadership styles taking under consideration all seven independent variables. There is a high correlation between the leadership variable (dependent) and the motivational variable (independent). The correlation is .70. This would indicate that the motivational variable is the greatest predictor (see Table 6).

Analysis of Variables

Variables X_2 (Motivation) and X_4 (Interaction-Influence).

The multiple R for these two variables = .7030. These two variables are the greatest predictors of leadership style. There is a negligible correlation between these two variables combined and the other six variables. The communication

TABLE 5
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS SUMMARY

Variable No.	Variable Name	Mean	Standard Deviation	Smallest Value	Largest Value
1	Leadership	13.4133	2.6917	4.2000	18.2000
2	Motivation	12.5289	2.8490	6.1000	16.7000
3	Communication	13.0867	2.9495	7.1000	18.8000
4	Interaction- Influence	13.4422	2.4378	6.2000	18.3000
5	Decision-making	12.7889	2.4589	7.0000	18.0000
6	Control Process	13.2044	2.7398	4.3000	17.7000
7	Goal Setting Process	13.2778	2.4174	7.0000	17.2000
8	Performance Goals and Training	10.9089	4.2750	2.3000	18.3000

TABLE 6

CORRELATION MATRIX

Variable No.	Variable Name	Leadership	Motivation	Communication	Interaction	Delegation	Character of Goals Setting	Character of Control	Departmental Training
1	Leadership	1.0000							
2	Motivation	0.7030	1.0000						
3	Communication	0.6183	0.8393	1.0000					
4	Interaction	0.6933	0.8452	0.8606	1.0000				
5	Delegation	0.5560	0.7479	0.7273	0.7096	1.0000			
6	Character of Goals Setting	0.4083	0.6414	0.5962	0.7246	0.5899	1.0000		
7	Character of Control	0.3831	0.5406	0.5687	0.6561	0.5826	0.6023	1.0000	
8	Departmental Training	0.4784	0.4710	0.6002	0.6490	0.5286	0.5097	0.5230	1.0000

variable is + .07, the delegation variable is + .06, the character of goal setting is - .07, the character of control is .005, and the performance goal is + .23. This would lead one to believe that these five variables are less significant when predicting the leadership style.

The analysis of the X_2 (motivation) and X_4 (interaction-influence) variables supports the Supportive Theory.

Climate is derived from basic human relations factors operating in the social system of an organization. Basic human relation factors converge in a system of control which interacts with personal attitudes and situational factors to produce motivation in an employee (Davis, 1972).

The F ratio was 23.55 with $p < .01$ level. The standard error of estimate was 1.89.

Variable X_6 (Character of Goals Setting). This analysis was repeated again by using the motivation(X_2), interaction influence (X_4), and the character of goals setting (X_6) variables. This was again compared by using the Stepwise regression model in which three variables were employed as predictors of the Y-intercept variable (leadership). The multiple R was .74 with a F ratio of 16.87 at the $p < .01$ level. This accounted for a .0161 increase in the level of predictability of the Y-intercept variable. The character of goat setting determines the amount of involvement of faculty/staff in establishing the goals and objectives of the institution. If orders are issued by the top administration, this can have a great impact on the morale of the

specific work group. "There is consistent evidence that managers secure somewhat a higher level of productivity and morale if a high employee orientation is their predominant style" (Davis, 1972). These managers are sensitive to the needs of their employees. The employee-oriented and task-oriented managers model supports the researcher's findings (Fleishman and Simmons, 1970). Leaders who fail to inform and get input when applicable of their faculty/staff members on matters affecting the respective member may be perceived negatively by their colleagues. Usually goals established by group participants are accepted freely by members of the work group.

Variables X_3 (Communication) and X_8 (Performance and Goal Setting). The communication variable (X_3) and the performance goals and training variable (X_8) had little or no significance on predicting the Y-intercept variable (leadership). This analysis was repeated again using the motivational (X_2), interaction influence (X_4), the character of goal setting (X_6), communication (X_3), and the performance goals and training (X_8) variables. This was again compared by using the Stepwise regression model in which five variables were employed as predictors of the Y-intercept variable (leadership).

The multiple R was .7553 with a F ratio of 10.36 at the .01 level. This accounted for a negligible increase in the

level of predictability of the Y-intercept variable (leadership).

Variables X_5 (Delegation) and X_7 (Character of Control).

This analysis was repeated again using all seven of the independent variables. This was again compared by using the Stepwise regression model in which seven variables were employed as predictors of the Y-intercept variable (leadership). The multiple R was .75.88 with a F ratio of 7.17 at the .01 level.

The broad classes of variables were labeled, respectively, casual and intervening. The "casual" variables are independent variables which determine the course of development within an organization and the results achieved by the organization (Likert, 1967). Casual variables include the structure of the organization and management policies, decisions, organizational and leadership strategies, skills, and behavior (Likert, 1967). The "intervening" variables reflect the internal state and health of the organization, e.g. the loyalties, attitudes, motivations, performance goals, and perceptions of all members and collective capacity for effective interaction, communication, and decision-making (Likert, 1967) (see Appendix B).

As depicted by the research analysis, there is a highly positive correlation between the leadership variable and the motivational variable (+ .49). This correlation depicts several things.

The character of interaction-influence process variable is the best predictor of the leader's behavior (style) (+.58). There was a highly positive correlation between the character of interaction-influence process variable and the leadership variable. This variable evaluates the amount of involvement by the subordinates in influencing the goals and objectives of their respective departments or operational units. The amount of interaction and trust established between the supervisor and the subordinate is taken into account. The amount of teamwork practiced within their respective department operational units and other components of the organization is taken into account. The behavior exhibited by the leader of their respective operational units has a direct impact on the attitudes and behavior of the subordinates within that particular operational unit. Leadership behavior that impedes an open and trusting relationship among subordinates stifles the organizational climate. This also suppresses creativity and causes a klanish type of behavior by members of the operational unit. This type of behavior leads to unionization of members who have a fear of job security and personal progress.

The communication variable is the most complex of all variables. Higher education management spend millions of dollars for the training of their top administrative personnel to communicate effectively. This study depicted a

negligible correlation between leadership behavior and the character of communication process. The partial regression coefficient indicates a (-) 0.202 correlation between these two variables.

Summary

In summary the following results were obtained from the study: (1) There is a highly positively correlation between the leadership variable and the character of interaction-influence variable (+.58). (2) There is a positive correlation between the leadership variable and the motivational variable (+.49). (3) There is little or no correlation between leadership and communication (-.20), delegation (+.06), goal setting (-.23), control (-.10), and performance goals (+.10) variables. The leadership behavior (style) has a great impact on the organizational climate. The majority of higher education institutions are governed by a consultative management system approach using Likert's Profile of Organizational Characteristics Instrument.

C H A P T E R V

CONCLUSION

Leadership Style/Organizational Climate

One hypothesis of the study was that there is a positive relationship between leadership style and organizational climate, and this was supported by the results. In "direct" support of the hypothesis, the motivational variable and the interaction variable statistically showed a highly positive correlation to the leadership variable. The "interaction rationale" would suggest that the organizational climate would be affected by the leader's behavior.

Interaction-Influence and Motivational Variable

The intercorrelation matrix (Table 6, page 78) merits analyzing. The highest or the most positively intercorrelation was the Communication-Interaction variable. There is a .8606 correlation. The researcher views this highly positively correlation as a result of the similarity between the communication and the interaction variables. Interaction should be a sub-unit of the Communication variable. The Communication variable as described by Likert merely describes the process. It would be necessary to redefine the communication variable before we can make any concrete statements about the high intercorrelation between these two variables.

The researcher is confident that the quality of the interaction is a major determinant of the importance of these two variables.

The relationship between the motivation and interaction variables is significant. The highly positively intercorrelation indicates the importance of the level of the confidence and trust sub-variables. The interaction between the leader and his/her subordinate must be perceived by the subordinate as being open and honest. The manner in which the leader relates to his/her subordinates is the key. The .8452 intercorrelation reflects the importance of these variables. This can be a major determinant of the effectiveness of the leader.

Another interesting interrelationship is the relationship between the Motivation and Delegation variables. There is a .7479 intercorrelation between these variables. This high intercorrelation reflects the importance of the manner in which respective leaders delegate assignments to subordinates. The leader should never delegate a specific task without delegating the respective subordinate the power to do what is deemed necessary to complete the task.

Research supports the belief that people working within organizations have specific psychological and social needs that must be met in order that they may function in a manner consistent with the goals and objectives of the organization. The leader's behavior has a direct impact on the organizational

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climate. Job morale can be accurately interpreted in terms of a faculty/staff member's general emotional tone. Morale refers to the attitudes of either a person or a group. It can determine if the faculty/staff has high or low morale. There is a high correlation between morale and productivity. This supports the Supportive Theory of Organizational Behavior, originally called the "principles of supportive relationships" by Rensis Likert (1967):

The leadership and the processes of the organization must be such as to ensure a maximum probability that in all interactions and all relationships with the organization each member will, in the light of his background, values, and expectations, view the experience as supportive and one which builds and maintains his sense of personal worth and importance.

The researcher finds it necessary to expand on this theory in depth. After carefully reviewing the finding, it is evident that the interaction influence and motivational variables can be used as indicators in attempting to predict the leadership style in relationship to the organizational climate. Subordinates' perceptions of their supervisors play a major role in assessing the organizational climate. If faculty/staff perceives their supervisors as being friendly, untrustworthy, and dishonest in their relationships with others, this type of perceived behavior fosters an unhealthy organizational climate. The level of confidence is another key determinant.

The contemporary leader must take under consideration different values that prevail in a pluralistic society. The leader who lacks confidence will have difficulty in diagnosing

different situations and adapting his/her style to cope adequately with the situation. These difficulties may lead to leaders failing to perform certain functions that could lead to desirable results. This may result in the leader exercising close supervision over his/her subordinates. The closeness of supervision may prove disruptive due to the task being performed and the personalities of subordinates. Also, a leader who lacks confidence may make decisions that compromise his subordinates' needs, rewards, and status among other groups.

The supervisor's warmth and support of his/her subordinates are important. Warmth and support presented by the supervisor may reduce various kinds of work related anxieties. Emphasis should be on positive reinforcement rather than punishment. Individuals who have institutionalized helping roles, such as doctors, lawyers, nurses, teachers, and social workers, have a strong affiliation need. That is, they usually desire a warm supportive work climate. The warmth and supportive concept is one of the major reasons that the interaction-influence variable is so important in higher education. Teachers are in the helping business and usually they have a high need for affiliation.

Obtaining good morale is no easy task for the supervisor; yet it is primarily his/her problem. Top management can set policy, but top management cannot contact every employee personally. Morale depends largely upon the kind and quality of these contacts between the supervisor and the

subordinate. Group morale is dependent upon the morale of each individual in the group. Morale is an individual matter. Therefore, the improvement of group morale must be accomplished by improving the morale of every individual in the group. This is done in large measure by the personal missionary work of the supervisor.

In building morale, the supervisor's job is a salesman's job: he/she is selling an idea, an attitude, a goal. The supervisor's behavior is his only sample kit. He/she has to exhibit the attitudes he/she wants others to have. He/she has to strive for the goals that he/she desires others to achieve. He/she has to believe the things that he/she wants others to believe. The essence of good morale is participation. To participate means "to take part in." One may be a part of a group but not be a participant in its activities. An individual employee may work for an organization and yet not feel that he/she is a real participant in its achievements. Anything which will encourage in the employee a sense of belonging in the organization will make a real contribution toward building morale. Genuine feelings of participation are not fostered by giving, by charity, or by one-way communication. Good morale cannot be bought.

Application of Contingency Model

The contingency model postulates that leadership effectiveness depends upon the appropriate matching of the individual's leadership style of interacting and the influence

which the group situation provides. The contingency model can be applied to this study in several ways. One way is to examine the organizational structure of higher educational institutions. Most colleges and universities operate under a quasi-committee governance. On every college campus committees play a major role in the everyday operation of a college/university campus. The research and findings of these committees many times determine the destiny of the institution. Contemporary college/university administrators must be capable of dealing with a pluralistic society due to the composition of personalities serving on these committees. If a contemporary higher education administrator operates from a narrow frame of reference (tunnel vision), he/she will find it difficult to manage these institutions.

Goals and Leader Behavior

The college or university is different from business or industry. In the private sector executives are recruited who have the same philosophies as incumbent executives of the corporation. Usually the goals and objectives are more defined. Our higher educational institutions are a mix of many different philosophies, educational backgrounds, work experiences, ethnic groups, ages, sex, and goals. The college/university is mainly a service organization that must meet the constant changing needs and values of society. Our college/universities should take a lead in inducing change in a pluralistic society. The contemporary

college/university administrator must be able to manage individuals effectively with diverse personalities to accomplish the goals and objectives of the organization.

There was a highly negligible correlation between the leadership variable and the character of goal setting. The researchers find it necessary to expand on this because of the complexity of the situation. In this situation we are evaluating the organizational structure, not the individual leadership behavior of a specific operational unit. By this is meant the type of leadership that prevails throughout the top administration or the administrative philosophy of the top administration. If goals are dictated by the top administration without consulting middle and supervisory level management, then the individual supervisors at lower levels would have little or no impact on the establishment of goals and objectives for their specific operational unit.

Another factor is the trend toward bureaucratic structures in higher education organizations. The move is away from autonomy at the department/campus level to a system model. With the current trends of governance of higher educational institutions, it is inevitable that goals are no longer being established at the supervisory level.

Faculty and staff are no longer willing to be coerced by top management of these higher education institutions. They are demanding more input into the decision-making process. Their demands will be met by the cooperation of top management on a voluntary basis through committee assignment or

they will continue to form a collective bargaining group to meet their needs. It was top management's inflexible attitude in private industry that brought about the unionization of the private sector. The contemporary college/university administrator should use this as a reference point in the everyday operation of colleges/universities.

The first and major factor is that members of the contemporary organization feel that the atmosphere of the organization should be supportive and help each individual achieve and maintain his/her sense of personal worth and importance. A second factor is that members of the contemporary organization have a high level of expectations in the areas of promotion, training, working conditions, interesting and psychologically rewarding work. The third factor is the reward and trust system. The manner in which rewards are used in the everyday operation of the organization is important. The fourth and final factor is the amount of responsibility felt by each member of the organization. The motivational variable is an excellent indicator to use in predicting both the health of the organization and the leaders' behavior (style). Employees' participation is not a frivolous goal. Before it can be effective, management must have faith in its employees' abilities and decision-making skills. The results are so often rewarding. But we cannot expect the worker to walk in and give use of their ideas unless we welcome these ideas honestly and show our

appreciation. Participative management nearly always makes the supervisor's job easier and certainly more pleasant.

A psychologist at the University of California, Mason Haire (1964, pp. 78-79), issued a word of caution to supervisors practicing participative management.

Participation has the unique characteristic of giving a person a chance to be part of the final process, and a chance to expand and develop as a participant, as well as providing an opportunity for him to contribute to the final outcome. On both counts--because of the different relation of the man to the job as well as his greater contribution to the job--participation is one of the most useful leadership techniques. It should be added, however, that it must be a real participation and not a sham. In many cases supervisors invite participation only after they know the answer, with the idea that it would be good for the men to "have a feeling" of participating. Nothing is more apt to be sensed by the participant than the fact that he isn't taken seriously and that his participation is not real. It is apt to produce a great deal more of a liability for him to feel duped than it would have to be left unconsulted. If a supervisor is going to invite participation he must be ready to take it seriously and be swayed by it, as well as ready for it to open many areas that he hadn't anticipated. If this is not possible, he would do better to avoid it in the first place.

This research finding supports the participative management philosophy. The quality of interaction between the subordinate and supervisor is the key to a healthy organizational climate.

Correlation Between Leadership Style and Staff Motivation

Another aspect of the study depicted that there is a positive correlation between leadership style and staff motivation. Frederick Herzberg (1959) has done extensive

work in the field of motivation. The researcher has applied some of his work to expound on the findings in this study.

The theories of Kurt Lewin in psychology and of Malinowski, Hughes, and Homans, among many others, are responsible for formal psychological and sociological theory to analyze people's attitude toward their job. However, most of their research does not focus on people's attitudes as they relate to their jobs. The individual plays a role primarily in terms of his position in the structure of the group or his contribution to group processes.

The first major study to relate the supervisor's success to degree in which he/she focuses on the needs of his subordinates as individuals rather than on the goals of production was the Hawthorne (1927) study. Phiffner (1954) and his co-workers at the University of Southern California did an extensive series of investigations in which they relate the organizational competence of supervisors to measures of productivity and turnover.

Argyris (1964) approaches the world of industry from a different perspective. Rather than concentrating on the group he focuses on the individual. His contribution is a vigorous defense of the individual integrity: the need of the person to maintain his self-esteem and his right to grow in the face of the demands of the organization for "teamwork."

Hersey (1972) studies the variation of feelings about the job within the individual at different times. One of his best-known studies of the cyclical nature of feelings about the job was related to the frequency of accidents. Workers kept a diary of their moods and record of accidents. The important finding was that many of the accidents occurred during the period in which the worker reported his mood as "low."

One major study was a job attitudes study by Herzberg, Mausners, Peterson, and Capwell (1957). This took place in Pittsburg, Pennsylvania, in 1957. Their study was concerned with "what do people want from their jobs." Another question addressed in this study was: "How are you going to solve the dilemma of trying to motivate workers who have a continuously revolving set of needs?" They found that factors that made people happy with their jobs turned out to be different from the factors that made people unhappy with their jobs. When they responded feeling happy with their jobs, they most frequently described factors related to their tasks, to events that indicated to them that they were successful in the performance of their work, and to the possibility of professional growth. When feelings of unhappiness were reported, they were not associated with the job itself but with conditions that surrounded the doing of the job. Factors involved in these situations were called factors of hygiene, for they

acted in a manner similar to the principles of medicine. The hygiene factors are supervision, interpersonal relations, physical working conditions, salary, company policies and administrative practices, benefits, and job security.

The contemporary college/university administrators must develop a leadership style that is conducive to organizational development. Cries for academic freedom and self-identity are heard throughout university communities while the administration is moving towards more fiscal and academic accountability. Terms are being repeated in the academic community like "back to basics." All of the above statements are examples of faculty alienation of the bureaucratic governance of higher education institutions. Traditional leadership style being used by many of our contemporary leaders stifle creativity in the academic community. There are less and less incentives or rewards being given research in higher education. The researcher finds that college administrators are spending a large portion of their efforts studying past instead of evaluating current programs and forecasting future trends. As a result of limited forecasting, higher education institutions are caught up in the crisis management syndrome.

There is a need for more planning. We should establish objectives for each operational unit in the respective colleges and universities. Objectives should be written down comprehensively, clearly, and logically. They must be quantified and stated with relevant detail in the short-run.

Clearly, however, when looking more than, say five years ahead, such detail must necessarily be kept flexible as the changing scene is likely to demand change.

Arising out of this way of life, any organization may be said to have an "ethos," character, personality, or "image" reflected in, or from, the basic objectives it adopts. These can be briefly stated as follows:

(a) Relationship with the environment. No organization can conduct its business in a vacuum. It must deal with government policies, students, other colleges, technological changes, changes in student demands, and its own personnel.

(b) Growth ambitions. Student recruitment and retention policies. Seek additional sources of funding.

(c) Development of educational philosophy. This is essential in a pluralistic society.

The "management by objectives concept" should be instituted throughout higher education. This process involves not only the establishment of realistic targets but also the full support of management, at all levels, in the achievement of those targets. The whole process is thus one of active involvement from the board of directors downward.

As identified by the researcher's findings, the character of motivation is an important determinant of the

organizational climate. By implementing a Management by Objectives systems approach, this should insure involvement of faculty and staff at all levels and thus will lead to more efficient leadership and higher productivity in colleges and universities.

Organizational Climate

The leadership style has a direct effect on the health of the organizational climate. If the leader does not allow for input from subordinates, he/she will stifle the work environment. This will cause group division and this can have an adverse effect on teambuilding. Other research has proven that the individual's integrity is a very important determinant to take under consideration as a leader. Herzberg's (1959) theory states that supervision is a hygiene factor. Therefore, supervision that is not conducive to the particular individuals of a specific organization can impede teamwork between the administration and the faculty.

Effective Leader. The most effective leader is one who acts as catalyst, a consultant, and a resource person to the group. His/her job is to help the group to grow, to emerge, and to become free. He/she serves the group best when they are a whole person, direct, real, open, spontaneous, permissive, emotional, and highly personal. He/she acts in such a way as to facilitate group strength,

individual responsibility, diversity, nonconformity, and aggressiveness. The good leader tends not to lead. He/she feels, acts, relates, and talks human as do other members of the group and the institutions. The leader is present and available to the group as a person, not as a role.

Authoritarian or Defensive Leader. The other type of leadership style that is less popular in today's world is the defensive leader. It is the researcher's opinion that this leadership style is inappropriate and perhaps even fundamentally dissonant with another viable side of the world in which one lives: with education for growth, intimacy, authenticity, humanness, and creativity; with the Judeo-Christian ethics of love, honesty, faith, cheek-turning, and brotherhood; with the world of ambiguity, feeling, conflict, sorrow, creativity, and diversity; with many new exciting developments in education, architecture, the creative arts, economics, management, and all phases of modern life; in short, with the world of human beings, with people. It is essential today that those who are administratively responsible for the colleges and universities of America see clearly this conflict and its implications for all facets of American life. Over the last two decades, much of the dysfunctional disturbance that the papers report daily from the college and university campuses are created

as unintended but inevitable effects of defensive leadership practices among administrators of American colleges/universities.

Let us look at the dynamics of defensive leadership. The major dynamic of the defensive leadership style is fear and distrust. Observation indicates that people who have mild or more serious fears tend to distrust the people whom they lead and to filter the data that are given to followers. They develop strategies for such filtering and programming of data dissemination in an attempt to control and manipulate the motivations and behavior of the followers. The diagnostic key to defensive leadership is a state of low trust. He/she assumes that the average person cannot be trusted and as individuals are lazy and irresponsible. Therefore, they are of the opinion that in order to inspire and motivate subordinates, tight supervision and control are required.

Communication

One of the more complex variables to diagnose is that of communication. Oddly enough, this study revealed a negligible correlation between leadership behavior and the character of communication process. One reason is that organizational structures are so complex that one individual has little or no impact on the communication network. There are so many intervening variables that a

leader's behavior cannot be indicated by the type of communication practiced by a specific leader. Upward and downward communication in many cases is determined by the governance of the organization and not by the behavior of the individual supervisor. If orders are being imposed on him/her, they may have no other alternative but to impose orders on their subordinates. Due to a proliferation of top administrative personnel, the accuracy of upward communication is abated. The researcher is confident that future communication will be facilitated through group processes.

Recommendations

The key to being an effective leader is learning how to diagnose his/her work environment. The environment consists of the leader, followers, superiors, associates, organization, and job demands (see Figure 4).

This study focused on the relationship between the leadership style variable and organizational climate variable in higher education. The researcher's recommendations focus on developing an appropriate leadership style for a particular situation.

1. The first task for an educational leader is to diagnose the specific work environment, which involves becoming familiar with the five interacting variables listed in Figure 4.

2. The second task is to identify key interaction variables and design a strategy in order to become familiar with the necessary components.

3. Determine the social and psychological needs of subordinates (faculty/staff).

4. Develop openness in interpersonal relationships.

5. Believe in a diverse staff and faculty.

6. Play no favorites.

7. Underline the team approach in planning and problem solving.

8. It is crucial that a leader's immediate staff is first to hear about important decisions and developments affecting the work group.

9. Be sensitive about how things look to others.

10. Avoid responding chiefly to complaints and the noisiest squeaky wheels.

11. Always exhibit positive thoughts about co-workers.

12. Appoint committees to deal with complex or controversial issues that may need the approval of a diverse group.

13. Follow through on decisions that the leader or the work group have personally implemented.

14. Develop a consistent leadership behavior in relating to subordinates and colleagues.

15. Be prompt.

16. Always be courteous to subordinates and colleagues.
17. Deal swiftly with behavior outside limits of acceptability.

The contemporary leader must develop a systematic approach to problem-solving. Planning will be a key to the effectiveness of the contemporary. He/she must acquire the necessary managerial skills to function in a technological oriented society. Leaders being promoted from the academic and support services rank are going to be required to possess more technical skills in management. The contemporary college/university top executives will be required to be knowledgeable of (1) higher education institutions and philosophy, (2) human relations skills, (3) fiscal matters, (4) legislative matters, and (5) academic issues and matters.

Conclusions

The relationship between leadership styles and organizational climate in higher education supports previous findings in other types of organizations. The researcher is inclined to believe that management theories practiced for years in industry have similar application for higher education. This study reveals a need for participatory form of leadership style in higher education due to the complexity of the organization. The primary goal of the higher education society is to provide a service for a pluralistic society where technology is constantly changing.

Traditional leadership styles are becoming obsolete to manage contemporary higher education institutions. More emphasis is being placed on the individual faculty/staff needs. The effective leader will be the individual who can effectively conceptualize and communicate the desires and needs of the individual faculty/staff. The contemporary leader must be able to communicate effectively to diverse populations. These leaders must keep abreast of technological advancement so that college curricula will meet the continuous changing needs of an industrial society. This is the reason that more community involvement is crucial at this point in history. Advisory boards should be used in technical areas to bring new ideas to the appropriate academic leaders and committees.

The leader in higher education today has a great challenge. Due to the complexities of contemporary society and constantly changing technology, leaders must be equipped to deal with diversity, social ills, stress, conflict, and accountability. Above all they need to be innovative. They must possess the necessary conceptual, technical, and human relation skills that are essential if they are going to be effective in performing their respective leadership tasks.

Possibilities of Future Research

This study supports the idea that there is a critical need for additional research in the area of the organizational

climate of higher educational institutions. Due to the proliferation of bureaucratic structures, it is essential that more innovative methods be explored in order to manage effectively these complex organizations. As revealed in the research findings, more and more emphasis is being placed on the individual employee while at the same time there is a student demand for increased productivity. There needs to be a systematic approach for identifying the most appropriate leader for the respective work unit within the higher educational structure. Correctly identifying the appropriate leadership behavior can enhance the climate of the entire organization. Increase of productivity does not necessarily equate with loss of humanism--if the most effective leaders can be identified and placed appropriately. At present we do not have a methodology that can accurately identify appropriate leadership behaviors. Various positions within an educational organization demand various leadership styles. Thus, this researcher encourages, on the basis of the findings of this study, more definitive studies in the following:

- (1) relationship between vertical and horizontal communication in organization structure;
- (2) methods of delegation of authority;
- (3) methods of evaluating decision-making processes;
- (4) methods of evaluating effective managerial techniques;

(5) methods for motivating faculty/staff in a pluralistic society; and, most importantly,

(6) a systematic approach to identifying appropriate leadership behavior in higher education.

Additional research in the areas above should lead to the development of a science that will predice more accurately the successful management of higher educational institutions. The ultimate goal, of course, is to facilitate the group process so that each member of the organization can reach his/her potential without impeding the progress of the institution as a whole.

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APPENDIX

October 19, 1978

Dear Colleague:

Won't you help a hard working graduate student complete his degree? Your response is important.....

My doctoral dissertation deals with "The Relationship Between Leadership Styles and Organizational Climate in Higher Education." This study encompasses selected college and university faculty and staff throughout Texas.

It is an objective and impartial survey conducted purely for academic reasons under the supervision of Dr. Douglas Forsyth, School of Education, The University of Massachusetts at Amherst.

With permission of the McGraw-Hill Publishing Company, I am using Likert Profile of Organizational Characteristics Instrument to determine the leadership style and diagnose the organizational climate.

If you will complete the questionnaire and demographic data sheet, I shall be most appreciative. All returns will be regarded as strictly confidential. To ensure anonymity, please do not sign the questionnaire.

If you would like a copy of the survey analyses, send a self-addressed envelope to Corinthian Fields, Jr., 1405 Mims, Fort Worth, Texas 76106 by November 15, 1978.

Immediate return of the demographic data sheet and questionnaire is important. Thank you for your time and kind assistance.

Sincerely,

Corinthian Fields, Jr.
Business Department Chairperson
Tarrant County Junior College
4801 Marine Creek Parkway
Fort Worth, TX 76179

DEMOGRAPHIC DATA SHEET

General Directions: Please complete the demographic data sheet before proceeding to the test battery. ALL ANSWERS WILL REMAIN ANONYMOUS AND CONFIDENTIAL. Please insert a check mark in the appropriate blank.

<u>Total enrollment on your campus:</u>		<u>Discipline</u>
Under 500		Education
Over 500		Business
Over 1,000		Vocational Tech.
Over 2,000		Natural science
Over 5,000		Social Science
Over 10,000		Creative Arts
Over 15,000		Science
Over 20,000		Currently working toward a:
Over 25,000		Doctorate
		Masters
<u>Highest degree offered by institution:</u>		Baccalaureate
Doctorate		Professional
Masters		Diploma
Baccalaureate		Other
Professional		None
Associate		Appointment: Full-time
Diploma		Part-time
<u>Your current position:</u>		<u>Race:</u>
President/Chancellor		Am. Indian/Alaskan Native
Vice-President		Asian or Pacific Islander
Dean		Black
Associate Dean		Hispanic
Assistant Dean		White
Chairperson/Dept. Head		<u>Years of employment at current institution:</u>
Co-Chairperson/Co-Dept. H.		0 - 5
Asst. Chairperson/Head		5 - 10
Program Coordinator		10 - 15
Director		15 - 20
Associate Director		Over 20
Assistant Director		<u>Highest degree obtained:</u>
Professor		Doctorate
Associate professor		Masters
Assistant Professor		Baccalaureate
Instructor		Professional
Lecturer		Diploma
Registrar		Other
Librarian		
Other		

PROFILE OF ORGANIZATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS

Instructions

1. On the lines below each organizational variable (item), please place an *n* at the point which, as your experience, describes your organization at the present time (*n* = now). Treat each item as a continuous variable from the extreme at one end to that at the other.
2. In addition, if you have been in your organization one or more years, please also place a *p* on each line at the point which, in your experience, describes your organization as it was one to two years ago (*p* = previously).
3. If you were not in your organization one or more years ago, please check here _____ and answer as of the present time, i.e., answer only with an *n*.

Organizational variable

Item no.

1. Leadership processes used

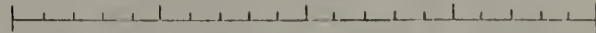
- a. Extent to which superiors have confidence and trust in subordinates

Have no confidence and trust in subordinates

Have condescending confidence and trust, such as master has in servant

Substantial but not complete confidence and trust, still wishes to keep control of decisions

Complete confidence and trust in all matters



1

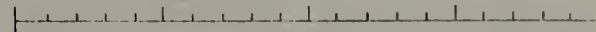
- b. Extent to which subordinates, in turn, have confidence and trust in superiors

Have no confidence and trust in superiors

Have subservient confidence and trust, such as servant has to master

Substantial but not complete confidence and trust

Complete confidence and trust



2

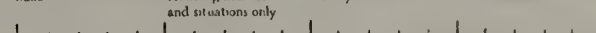
- c. Extent to which superiors display supportive behavior or virtually none

Display no supportive behavior or virtually none

Display supportive behavior in condescending manner and situations only

Display supportive behavior quite generally

Display supportive behavior fully and in all situations



3

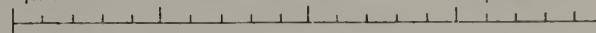
- d. Extent to which superiors behave so that subordinates feel free to discuss important things about their jobs with their immediate superior

Subordinates feel completely free to discuss things about the job with their superior

Subordinates feel rather free to discuss things about the job with their superior

Subordinates do not feel very free to discuss things about the job with their superior

Subordinates do not feel at all free to discuss things about the job with their superior



4

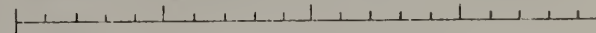
- e. Extent to which immediate superior in solving job problems generally tries to get subordinates' ideas and opinions and make constructive use of them

Always gets ideas and opinions and always tries to make constructive use of them

Usually gets ideas and opinions and usually tries to make constructive use of them

Sometimes gets ideas and opinions of subordinates in solving job problems

Seldom gets ideas and opinions of subordinates in solving job problems



5

2. Character of motivational forces

- a. Underlying motives tapped

Physical security, economic needs, and some use of the desire for status

Economic needs and moderate use of ego motives, e.g., desire for status, affiliation, and achievement

Economic needs and considerable use of ego and other major motives, e.g., desire for new experiences

Full use of economic, ego, and other major motives, as, for example, motivational forces arising from group goals



6

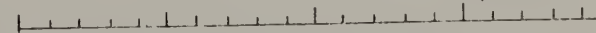
- b. Manner in which motives are used

Fear, threats, punishment, and occasional rewards

Rewards and some actual or potential punishment

Rewards, occasional punishment, and some involvement

Economic rewards based on compensation system developed through participation, group participation and involvement in setting goals, improving methods, appraising progress toward goals, etc.



7

- c. Kinds of attitudes developed toward organization and its goals

Attitudes are strongly favorable and provide powerful stimulation to behavior implementing organization's goals

Attitudes are usually favorable and support behavior implementing organization's goals

Attitudes are sometimes hostile and counter to organization's goals and are sometimes favorable to the organization's goals and support the behavior necessary to achieve them

Attitudes are usually hostile and counter to organization's goals



8

Profile of the Organizational Characteristics (Continued)					Item no.
Organizational variable					
d. Extent to which motivational forces conflict with or reinforce one another	Marked conflict of force—subordinates feel that their motivational force is at top to be borne in support of the organizational goals	Conflict often exists, occasionally forces will reinforce each other at least partially	Some conflict, but often motivational forces will reinforce each other	Motivational forces generally reinforce each other in a substantial and cumulative manner	9
e. Amount of responsibility felt by each member of organization for achieving organization's goals	Personnel at all levels feel responsibility for organization's goals and believe in ways to implement them	Substantial proportion of personnel, especially at higher levels, feel responsibility and generally believe in ways to achieve the organization's goals	Managerial personnel usually feel responsibility and believe in ways to achieve organization's goals	High level of responsibility felt by some, but not all; feel little and often believe in ways to achieve organization's goals	10
f. Attitudes toward other members of the organization	Favorable, cooperative attitudes throughout the organization with mutual trust and confidence	Cooperative, reasonable attitudes toward others in organization; may be some competition between peers with resulting hostility and some reservation toward subordinates	Subservient attitudes toward superiors, competition for status resulting in hostility toward peers, reservation toward subordinates	Subservient attitudes toward superiors, competition with hostility toward peers and contempt for subordinates; distrust is widespread	11
g. Satisfaction derived	Relatively high satisfaction throughout the organization with regard to membership in the organization, supervision, and one's own achievements	Some dissatisfaction to moderate high satisfaction with regard to membership in the organization, supervision, and one's own achievements	Dissatisfaction to moderate satisfaction with regard to membership in the organization, supervision, and one's own achievements	Usually dissatisfaction with membership in the organization, with supervision, and with one's own achievements	12
3. Character of communication process					
a. Amount of interaction and communication aimed at achieving organization's objectives	Very little	Little	Quite a lot	Much with both individuals and groups	13
b. Direction of information flow	Downward	Mostly downward	Down and up	Down, up, and with peers	14
c. Downward communication					
(1) Where initiated	Initiated at all levels	Patterned on communication from top but with some initiative at lower levels	Primarily at top or patterned on communication from top	At top of organization or to implement top directive	15
(2) Extent to which superiors willingly share information with subordinates	Provide minimum of information	Gives subordinates only information superiors feel they need	Gives information needed and answers most questions	Seeks to give subordinates all relevant information and all information they want	16
(3) Extent to which communications are accepted by subordinates	Generally accepted, but if not openly and cordially questioned	Often accepted but, if not may or may not be openly questioned	Some accepted and some viewed with suspicion	Viewed with great suspicion	17

Organizational variable	PROFILE OF ORGANIZATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS (Continued)				Items
d. Upward communication					
(1) Adequacy of upward communication via line organization	Very little	Minimal	Some	A great deal	18
(2) Subordinates' feeling of responsibility for initiating accurate upward communication	None at all	Relatively little usually communicate. There is a feeling that when requested they "yes" the boss.	Some to moderate degree of responsibility to initiate accurate upward communication.	Considerable responsibility felt in that the group communicates all relevant information.	19
(3) Forces leading to accurate or distorted upward information	Virtually no forces to distort and powerful forces to communicate accurately.	Occasional forces to distort along with many forces to communicate accurately.	Many forces to distort also forces for honest communication.	Powerful forces to distort information and deceive superiors.	20
(4) Accuracy of upward communication via line	Accurate	Information that boss wants to hear flows; other information may be limited or cautiously given.	Information that boss wants to hear flows; other information is restricted and filtered.	Tends to be inaccurate.	21
(5) Need for supplementary upward communication system	No need for any supplementary system.	Slight need for supplementary system; suggestion systems may be used.	Upward communication often supplemented by suggestion system and similar devices.	Great need to supplement upward communication by suggestion system, suggestion system, and similar devices.	22
e. Sideward communication, its adequacy and accuracy					
	Usually poor because of competition between peers, corresponding hostility.	Fairly poor because of competition between peers.	Fair to good.	Good to excellent.	23
f. Psychological closeness of superiors to subordinates (i.e., friendliness between superiors and subordinates)					
	Usually very close.	Fairly close.	Can be moderately close if proper roles are kept.	Fairly apart.	24
(1) How well does superior know and understand problems faced by subordinates?	Knows and understands problems of subordinates very well.	Knows and understands problems of subordinates quite well.	Has some knowledge and understanding of problems of subordinates.	Has no knowledge or understanding of problems of subordinates.	25
(2) How accurate are the perceptions by superiors and subordinates of each other?	Often in error.	Often in error on some points.	Moderately accurate.	Usually quite accurate.	26
4. Character of interaction-influence process					
a. Amount and character of interaction	Extensive, friendly interaction with high degree of confidence and trust.	Moderate interaction, often with fair amount of confidence and trust.	Little interaction and usually with some condescension by superiors, fear and caution by subordinates.	Little interaction and always with fear and distrust.	27
b. Amount of cooperative teamwork present	Very substantial amount throughout the organization.	A moderate amount.	Relatively little.	None.	28

PROFILE OF ORGANIZATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS (Continued)

INDEX OF ORGANIZATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS (Continued)

Item
no.

Organizational variable						Item no.
c. Extent to which subordinates can influence the goals, methods, and activity of their units and departments	(1) As seen by superiors	None	Virtually none	Moderate amount	A great deal	29
	(2) As seen by subordinates	None except through "informal organization" or unionization	Little except through "informal organization" or via unionization	Moderate amount both directly and via unionization (where it exists)	Substantial amount both directly and via unionization (where it exists)	30
d. Amount of actual influence which superiors can exercise over the goals, activity, and methods of their units and departments		Believed to be substantial but actually moderate unless capacity to exercise severe punishment is present	Moderate to somewhat more than moderate, especially for higher levels in organization	Moderate to substantial, especially for higher levels in organization	Substantial but often done indirectly, as, for example, by superior building effective interaction influence system	31
e. Extent to which an effective structure exists enabling one part of organization to exert influence upon other parts		Highly effective structure exists enabling exercise of influence in all directions	Moderately effective structure exists, influence exerted largely through vertical lines	Limited capacity exists, influence exerted largely via vertical line and primarily downward	Effective structure virtually not present	32
5. Character of decision-making process						
a. At what level in organization are decisions formally made?		Bulk of decisions at top of organization	Policy at top, many decisions within prescribed framework made at lower levels but usually checked with top before action	Broad policy decisions at top, more specific decisions at lower levels	Decision making widely done throughout organization, although with integrated through handling process provided by overlapping groups	33
b. How adequate and accurate is the information available for decision making at the place where the decisions are made?		Information is generally inadequate and inaccurate	Information is often somewhat inadequate and inaccurate	Reasonably adequate and accurate information available	Relatively complete and accurate information available based both on measurements and efficient flow of information in organization	34
c. To what extent are decision makers aware of problems, particularly those at lower levels in the organization?		Generally quite well aware of problems	Moderately aware of problems	Aware of some, unaware of others	Often are unaware or only partially aware	35
d. Extent to which technical and professional knowledge is used in decision making		Used only if possessed at higher levels	Much of what is available in higher and middle levels is used	Much of what is available at higher, middle and lower levels is used	More of what is available anywhere within the organization is used	36
e. Are decisions made at the best level in the organization as far as						
(1) Availability of the most adequate and accurate information bearing on the decision		Overlapping groups and group decision processes tend to push decisions to point where information is most adequate or to pass the relevant information to the decision making point	Some tendency for decisions to be made at higher levels than when most adequate and accurate information exists	Decisions often made at levels as precisely higher than is level where most adequate and accurate information exists	Decisions usually made at levels as precisely higher than is level where most adequate and accurate information exists	37

PROFILE OF ORGANIZATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS (Continued)

Organizational characteristic					Item no.
(2) The motivational consequences (i.e., does the decision-making process help to create the necessary motivation in those persons who have to carry out the decision?)	Substantial contribution by decision-making process to motivation to implement	Some contribution by decision-making to motivation to implement	Decision-making contributes relatively little motivation	Decision-making contributes little or nothing to the motivation to implement the decision, usually yields adverse motivation	38
f To what extent are subordinates involved in decisions related to their work?	Not at all	Never involved in decisions, occasionally consulted	Usually are consulted but ordinarily not involved in the decision-making	Are involved fully in all decisions related to their work	39
g Is decision-making based on man-to-man or group pattern of operation? Does it encourage or discourage teamwork?	Man-to-man only, discourages teamwork	Man-to-man almost entirely, discourages teamwork	Both man-to-man and group, partially encourages teamwork	Largely based on group pattern, encourages teamwork	40
6 Character of goal setting or ordering					
a Manner in which usually done	Except in emergencies, goals are usually established by means of group participation	Goals are set or orders issued after discussion with subordinates of problems and planned action	Orders issued, opportunity to comment may or may not exist	Orders issued	41
b To what extent do the different hierarchical levels tend to strive for high performance goals?	High goals sought by all levels, with lower levels sometimes pressing for higher goals than top levels	High goals sought by higher levels but with occasional resistance by lower levels	High goals sought by top and often resisted moderately by subordinates	High goals pressed by top, generally resisted by subordinates	42
c Are there forces to accept, resist, or reject goals?	Goals are overtly accepted but are covertly resisted strongly	Goals are overtly accepted but often covertly resisted to at least a moderate degree	Goals are overtly accepted but at times with some covert resistance	Goals are fully accepted both overtly and covertly	43
7 Character of control processes					
a At what hierarchical levels in organization does major or primary concern exist with regard to the performance of the control function?	At the very top only	Primarily or largely at the top	Primarily at the top but some shared feeling of responsibility felt at middle and to a lesser extent at lower levels	Concern for performance of control functions likely to be felt throughout organization	44
b How accurate are the measurements and information used to guide and perform the control function, and to what extent do forces exist in the organization to distort and falsify this information?	Strong pressures to obtain complete and accurate information to guide own behavior and behavior of own and related work groups; hence in formation and measurements tend to be complete and accurate	Some pressure to protect self and colleagues and hence some pressures to distort; information is only moderately complete and contains some inaccuracies	Fairly strong forces exist to distort and falsify, hence measurements and information are often incomplete and inaccurate	Very strong forces exist to distort and falsify, as a consequence measurements and information are usually incomplete and often inaccurate	45
c Extent to which the review and control functions are concentrated	Highly concentrated in top management	Relatively highly concentrated, with some delegated control to middle and lower levels	Moderate downward delegation of review and control processes, lower as well as higher levels perform the tasks	Review and control done at all levels with lower units at times imposing more vigorous reviews and tighter controls than top management	46

